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EDUCATION

VOLUME 67 No. 1

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Costa Rican Education and
the National Culture

A MAGAZINE DEVOTED *to the* SCIENCE, ART, PHILOSOPHY *and* LITERATURE *of* EDUCATION

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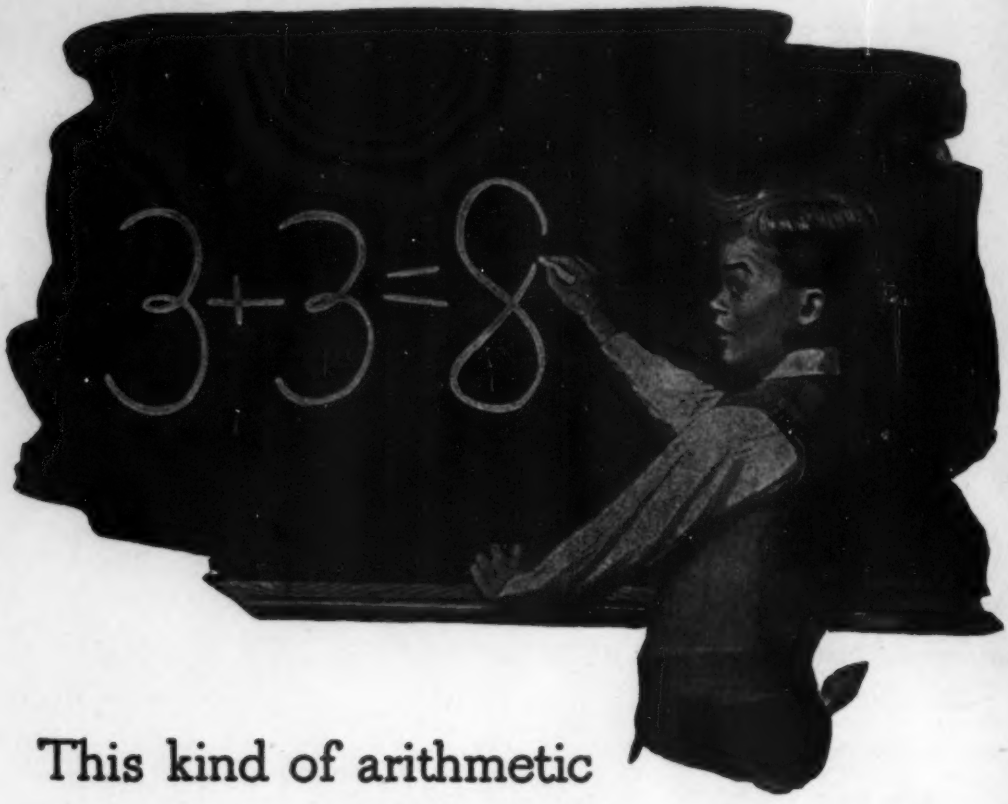

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EDUCATION

Vol. 67 SEPTEMBER 1946 No. 1

Can Professor Lundberg Save Us?

By NORMAN D. PALMER
Department of History, Colby College, Waterville, Maine

IT seems to be generally agreed today that as a human being man has not been a great success. To be sure, he has managed to survive, after a fashion, for many thousands of years, and has made amazing progress in material and scientific matters, but he has proved to be singularly inept in building stable social institions and in cultivating the all-important art—or is it a science?—of human relationships. Sociologists shaking their heads mournfully over this spotty record of strength and weakness, talk in terms of "culture lags." What can be done with such a patient?

Desperate cases require desperate measures. It is little wonder that some of our social doctors, in their efforts to find a healing nostrum for mankind, argue that a science of society must be perfected, which will be as exact, as analytical, and as impersonal as the physical sciences themselves. Our approach to social problems, they assert, is still conditioned by metaphysical and subjective factors which belong to folklore, not to the scientific stage of human history. The cure, therefore, is to borrow the methods of science and apply them objectively to *homo sapiens.*

Such a cure is suggested by Dr. George A. Lundberg, now professor of sociology at the University of Washington, in his article, "Can Science Save Us?," in the December issue of *Harper's.* His answer to this question seems to be that science cannot save us, but that applying the methods of science to human problems can. He thinks that the "failure" and "confusion" which have marked most attempts to analyze and solve social problems have arisen from "the failure to make the same provisions for scientific guidance in social as in physical matters." "Shall we or shall we not," he asks, "assume that we can formulate laws of human behavior which are comparable to the laws of gravity, thermodynamics, and bacteriology?" In his opinion we shall, or at least we should. These laws can be applied to values: "There appears to be no reason why values should not be studied as objectively as any other phenomena." They can be applied to morals: "We merely advocate a scientific basis for morality." They can be applied to all phases of social relation-

ships, however intangible these may appear. Professor Lundberg envisions "an order in which truth is determined by the laborious methods of science and applied by democratic methods." He insists that the social sciences "can and must provide the instrument board and the charts by which properly qualified social pilots may navigate with assurance in all weather."

These are challenging ideas, if we grasp them correctly. If a scientific approach to the social sciences can achieve these miracles, what are we waiting for? Should not all students of society adopt this approach? Before we all get on the bandwagon, let's analyze these ideas more carefully. Exactly what, in essence, does Professor Lundberg mean?

II

Frequently in the past students of society have tried to ape the scientist and discover societal laws; but the net results of their efforts are far from impressive. The philosophers of the eighteenth century believed that a true science of society was possible, but their notions of science were none too exact in any case, living as they did in an age when, in the words of Henry Adams, "God was a father and nature a mother, and all was for the best in a scientific universe." Auguste Comte evolved his famous law of the three stages of philosophic thought: the first, or theological, stage, in which phenomena are interpreted as the intervention of supernatural and divine beings; the second, or metaphysical, stage, "in which abstract rational entities, such as substance, essence, form and cause, are posited as explanatory principles;" and the third, or positive stage, "in which facts are understood in their empirical certainty" and experience becomes the guide to life. But in his last years Comte applied his positivism to the theological realm, and made sociology, which he placed "at the summit of the hierarchy of the sciences," the formative principle of a religion of humanity, and even went so far as to found a positivist church! Henry Adams tried to reduce history to physical laws, feeling that a dynamic theory of history, like any law of movement, must rest upon some mechanical formula of acceleration; but in the process of evolving "scientific" historical laws he nearly lost his mind and finally decided that his education had not fitted him for the new era and that the unity he sought throughout his life was not to be found in the multiplicity of the twentieth century.

Many times during the age of Comte and Adams some other powerful and inquiring mind—Spencer, Gumplowicz, Le Play, for example—sought to "grasp this sorry scheme of things entire" and evolve systematic laws. Each synthesis fell far short of a true science of society.

Now in our time the search for the scientific basis of human affairs goes on. Some would build on the foundations laid by Comte and Spencer and, more recently, Pareto; others would seek the formula in symbolism and the quantification of social phenomena, and would attempt, by quantitative analysis of all human actions, to bridge the gap between the social and the physical sciences. Professor Lundberg is a leading representative of this latter school. He has developed his ideas in numerous articles, including the contribution to the December

Harper's and more exhaustively in his book, *Foundations of Sociology* (published in 1939). Since this remarkable book contains the fullest development of his theories, let us seek enlightment therein.

III

Professor Lundberg advocates a positivistic approach to the social sciences. He does not recognize the validity of the distinction between the physical and the social sciences. "The apparent difficulty of applying the methods of natural science to societal phenomena flows not from any intrinsic characteristic of these phenomena but from the retention in the latter field of postulates long since repudiated in the other sciences." "All phenomena are physical from my point of view," and all are subject to quantitative analysis. The distinction between quantity and quality also for him has no meaning: "All quantitative gradations are . . . *degrees* or *amounts* of that quality." "I hold that by certain methods, through certain inventible operations, the subjective becomes objective, the nonhomogeneous becomes homogeneous, the 'complex' becomes 'simple,' and the immeasureable becomes measurable. . . . For scientific purposes all attempted distinctions, hypotheses, or assumptions regarding differences in the *ultimate* 'nature' of so-called 'physical' as contrasted with 'social' data, between 'material' and 'immaterial,' 'mental,' 'spiritual,' or 'cultural' phenomena are ruled out. 'Values' and 'ends' are inferences from observed behavior and . . . are as objectively determinable as other phenomena. . . . Intellectual curiosity is from my point of view subject to interpretation as disequilibrium of an organism in a situation. . . . The characteristic 'intelligence,' 'ability,' etc., is no more intrinsically qualitative than is age, literacy, wealth, family-size, or any recognized demographic characteristic."

What we must have, says Professor Lundberg, is "refined empirical data," from which "emotional tones and meanings" have been eliminated. But he hastens to assure us that "there will always be the possibility of an emotional attitude toward the fundamental mystery of 'that untraveled world whose margin fades forever and forever' as we move."

The social sciences, he insists, "are hopelessly entangled in the notion that some phenomena are 'directly' known and are 'material,' as contrasted with 'mental' and 'immaterial' phenomena. . . . If social scientists wish to displace the metaphysicians, theologians, politicians, and other traditional spokesmen who have provided in the past that unified and coherent thing which men have always craved, it behooves social scientists to provide a substitute theory. . . . Such a system is in my opinion the framework of natural science when consistently applied to societal phenomena."

Professor Lundberg, therefore, seeks "to change the level of sociological discussion . . . from its traditional plans of metaphysical name-calling to the plane of systematic determination of utility." "The time is ripe," he believes, "for the systematization of the whole field of general sociology in quantitative symbols . . . *all* data are subject to such analysis."

Lundberg's *Foundations of Sociology* is largely a theoretical explanation of the quantitative methods of ap-

proach. Like the works of most inductive theorists who would apply the methods of the physical sciences to societal phenomena, his book is hardly intelligible to the uninitiated, since it involves familiarity with a specialized vocabulary consisting of accepted terms used in an unusual sense and new concepts or new combinations of concepts which the author employs in his search for precise verbal instruments with which to fashion his ideas.

IV

The question may be asked: Are these scientific quantifiers the forerunners of "the long-delayed technological revolution in the social sciences"—the phrase is Professor Lundberg's—or are they rather twentieth century counterparts of those earnest souls who, in an earlier day, sought the philiosopher's stone? Before judging them too harshly, we should rejoice that their approach has made their more orthodox brethren howl with rage, and we should admit that they have exposed many weaknesses in the present methodology and techniques of social science work. Progress in this field is painfully—even tragically—slow. It is small wonder, I repeat, that certain of our social doctors, noting the rapid advances of the physical sciences in the modern era—advances which, incidentally, have greatly aggravated the social problems—have concluded that the methods of these physical sicences can and must be applied to *all* phases of human society.

At precisely this point in their prescription the quantifiers over-reach themselves. They have pointed to a way in which many social data can be given greatest significance and utility, but they certainly have not found the *only* way by which all human problems should be approached. For in truth, there is no one way. Scientific methodology should have a high place in the social sciences: It should, indeed, be more generally used than it is at present. As Harold W. Dodds has well said, "We owe a heavy debt to science for leadership toward the ideal of an objective, disinterested approach to a problem. The self-critical mind for which science strives, ever curious and ever flexible to new evidence, should be the goal of every student of social affairs." But this is a far cry from the position that all social phenomena are subject to quantitative analysis and differ in no essential way from the data with which a physicist or a chemist deals. Rather, states Mr. Dodds, we "should remember that conscious experimentation after the manner of the physical sciences is possible only to a slight degree. . . . The truth is that the social studies are by nature as much subjective and philosophical as objective and scientific."

To this view Professor Lundberg and the members of his school would enter a vigorous denial. They would point out that the physical sciences also were largely subjective and philosophical and that the great scientific advances of the modern age were made possible because these sciences were freed from their metaphysical shackles and became objective and scientific. The same kind of revolution, they would insist, can and will occur in the social sciences; it is only a matter of time.

The chief fallacies in this approach, aside from the patent fact that, like all paticularistic approaches, it is too narrow and dogmatic, are, I think,

the assumptions (1) that there is no essential difference between the physical and social sciences and that therefore the methodology should be the same, and (2) that subjective and intangible factors, such as ends, purposes, and values, can and should be eliminated from every consideration of human action. Some social situations are subject to strictly scientific analysis; others can best be approached from the standpoint of the philosopher or the student of the humanities. Certainly the social sciences in general are as close to the humanities as to the sciences. In short, a mere aping of the methods of the physical sciences in every problem area is clearly undesirable. The social scientist should, as the situation seems to demand, use the methods of science, the humanities, and other techniques as well. The recently issued Harvard Report on "General Education in a Free Society" laid down this "most important generalization: that all modes of inquiry must be adapted to the material under consideration and to available methods of approach. If this educational task is properly accomplished we shall have less in future of attempts to use the 'scientific method' upon material wholly unsuited to whatever methods may be employed under that guise; and more realization that statements in the literary or social sphere necessarily are different in nature, and in precision, from statements in mechanics."

In their efforts at specialization and synthesis social scientists will use various techniques and approaches, for they will be dealing with the variable factors of human behavior. Few of their conclusions will have the precision of scientific laws. Certainly they cannot rule out, or reduce to mechanical formulas, the influence of ideas and abstractions. On the contrary, as Charles A. Beard has said, "intangibles, imponderables, immeasurables, and values thrust themselves upon all social scientists who have not deliberately resolved to be more than half blind." Many of the conditions which motivate social action are not subject to exact scientific measurement and control, but nevertheless they contribute mightily to the climate of opinion in which we humans live and move and have our being. Researches in history, for example, are never so barren as when conducted by those who feel that all but verifiable facts must be excluded from consideration. The philosopher William Hocking exposed the fallacy of this view when he remarked: "The only difficulty with this procedure is that the important facts of history are never verifiable, for they take place in the mind." Professor Hocking stresses the need for the development of " a new conscience," which, "revolted by historical futility, takes the scientific conscience into its household as an auxiliary, not as a dog in a manger."

Is not this, after all, the nub of the whole matter? Should not the social scientists, without apology and surely without an inferiority complex, take the methodology of science "as an auxiliary, not as a dog in the manger?" Their chief tools must always be trained minds and inquiring spirits. Call it, if you must, with Professor Lundberg, the "disequilibrium of an organism in a situation;" it's still intellectual curiosity!

Supervision *of* Student Teachers *in* Universities

By LINDLEY J. STILES

Director of Student Teaching, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

IT is generally agreed that student teaching is the most important phase of teacher education. Not only do educators accord it first place in relation to other aspects of the pre-service training program, but teachers themselves, when asked after they have entered into the teaching profession in full-time assignments, almost unanimously rank student teaching as the most practical and most useful phase of their professional educational programs.

The effectiveness of a student teaching program in any institution is dependent upon a number of factors, including organization, administration, laboratory facilities, and supervision. Perhaps the most important of these is supervision which includes not only the direction of the program by the director of student teaching but also the guidance and assistance given to student teachers by supervising or critic teachers.

In a study[1] completed recently by the writer, information was obtained relative to the practices of supervision of prospective high school teachers in eighty universities distributed throughout the United States. In addition, the opinions of thirty-one authorities on teacher education were secured regarding desirable practices in several important phases of the program of supervision of student teachers in universities. It is the purpose of this article to present some of the more important findings of the study in order that they may be more readily available to those who may be interested in the supervision of student teaching.

Individuals Who Supervise Student Teaching in Universities.

Although there may be several who assist in one way or another in the student teaching program in universities, there are one or two individuals who are directly responsible for the supervising of student teaching. The data collected from the cooperating universities indicate that the supervising teacher seldom has to take the whole responsibility, although this individual usually assists and often has the largest part of the duties of supervision. In approximately one-half of the universities studied the supervising teacher shares the responsibility of supervision with the director of training or student teaching. These two individuals are assisted by the heads of subject-matter departments in nineteen per cent and by the high school principal in twenty-seven per cent of the universities. Other indivi-

1 "Pre-service Education of High School Teachers in Universities," Unpublished Doctoral Disseration, College of Education, University of Colorado, 1945.

duals who are sometimes a part of the supervisory staff include specialists in methods of teaching who are members of subject-matter departments, members of the department of education and dual professors (professors who are members of both the education and a subject-matter department).

Supervising Teachers

The success of the student teacher depends upon several factors but none is more important than the supervising teacher under whose direction the work is done. Among the qualifications considered in employing supervising teachers, those of willingness to supervise and training for the task of supervising student teachers are important. In more than forty per cent of the universities studied student teachers are assigned only to those teachers who desire to serve as supervising teachers, whereas less than twenty per cent of the student teachers are supervised by those who have bad special training for this important task. It should be pointed out, however, that in thirty-nine per cent of the co-operating universities an attempt is made to assign student teachers to the best teachers in the high schools where training is provided. Other practices vary from "any staff member" to "teachers who hold master's degrees and graduate credit in education and who volunteer to serve as supervising teachers."

Faculties to Which Supervising Teachers Belong.

While seventy per cent of the co-operating authorities on teacher education believe that supervising teachers should belong to both the public school faculty and the college of education staff, only about thirteen per cent of the universities reported this practice. This may not indicate the philosophy of the university since it may be the result of many factors some of which cannot be controlled by the universities.

The students in seventy-five per cent of the universities included in this study are supervised by teachers belonging to the public school faculty only while students in almost ninteen per cent of the universities teach under the direction of supervising teachers who belong to the university faculty only. (The slight discrepancy in total per cent is caused by the fact that a few universities reported two different arrangements in the same institution.)

Source of Pay for Supervising Teachers.

The question as to who should pay for the extra work done by the supervising teacher is debatable—whether the university whose students benefit from the training, or the public school which receives extra service and hence a benefit. Sixty-five per cent of the co-operating authorities on teacher education expressed the opinion that the university and the public school system should pay jointly for this service, a practice which occurs in thirty-four per cent of the universities studied. This additional expense was met by the university in twenty-five per cent and by the public school system in another twenty-five per cent of the cases. In sixteen per cent of the institutions offering student teaching no extra pay is provided for the supervising teachers except through the practice of remission of fees. A few institutions which make no provisions for paying supervising teachers direct-

ly pay the public school system for the privilege of using their facilities. One university reported a commendable system: the supervising teachers have a salary schedule for their student teaching work as well as for their work as public school teachers.

The Supervising Teacher's Load.

The load of the supervising teacher includes besides a daily teaching schedule supervisory duties. The normal daily load for high school teachers is usually five hours of teaching and it was found that for the majority of universities studied the supervising teachers teach the normal daily schedule. In less than ten per cent of the cases were supervising teachers reported to be carrying a reduced schedule of classes to compensate for their extra work in supervision, although eighty per cent of the authorities on teacher education believe that such a practice is desirable It may be assumed by some that supervising teachers receive assistance from student teachers which compensates for their extra responsibilities, but several authorities pointed out that, on the whole, it takes more time and energy to supervise than it does to do the teaching oneself.

The practice with respect to the number of student teachers assigned to a supervising teacher varies from one to twelve with the average number being three.

Post-war Plans in Relation to Supervision of Student Teaching.

Only seven out of the eighty universities studied reported plans concerning supervision of student teaching to be put into effect after the war. These plans include: (1) more careful selection of supervising teachers; (2) better control over supervising teachers; (3) more individual and group conferences with student teachers; (4) in-service training program for supervising teachers; and (5) giving supervising teachers rank on the university faculty.

Conclusions.

Conclusions which seem warranted from the study of supervision of student teaching in universities are:

1. Little administrative relationship exists between the university and the supervising teachers in the typical situation.

2. Few supervising teachers have had any special training for the supervision of student teachers.

3. Universities in general do not assume the responsibility for providing remuneration for the services rendered by supervising teachers in public school systems which provide facilities for student teaching.

4. Supervising teachers are overloaded with respect both to the number of student teachers assigned to them and to the number of classes they are expected to teach daily.

Recommendations.

The foregoing conclusions lead to the following recommendations.

Supervising teachers should be trained especially for the supervision of student teachers; they should be employed jointly by the public school system and the university on a part-time basis; and should be responsible to the principal of the high school for their high school teaching and to the director of student teaching for their

work in connection with the supervision of student teaching. They should be given a reduced load of teaching to compensate for the time spent supervising student teachers.

The number of student teachers assigned to one supervising teacher should be small—preferably not over two. The supervising teacher should be paid a salary from both the public school system and the university. The practice of maintaining a salary schedule for supervising teachers by universities is recommended.

An in-service training program for supervising teachers will insure the university that such teachers keep abreast with changes in educational philosophy and practice.

Supervising teachers should be given rank on the university faculty and be considered as part-time staff members by both the university and the public school system.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
TWENTY-SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING

November 28-30 Hotel Statler Boston, Massachusetts

All social studies teachers are invited and urged to attend this important gathering of social studies teachers and administrators being held in Boston, November 28-30, 1946. Headquarters will be at the Hotel Statler, and all meetings but those on the opening day, November 28, will be held at the Hotel Statler.

On Thursday, November 28, the group will leave from the Hotel Statler for Plymouth, Massachusetts. While there, they will have an opportunity to visit historic points of interest, see a Thanksgiving pageant, and have Thanksgiving Dinner. Following the dinner, George Denny's "Town Meeting of the Air" program will be broadcast on a nationwide hookup.

On the other days of the meeting, a widely diversified program with outstanding speakers will offer every teacher a topic closely allied with his or her interest. These meetings are being planned so as to offer teachers practical help in guidance with present day problems in the social studies field.

There will be an extensive exhibit of educational materials of special interest to social studies teachers. For further information write to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. The final program will be available about November 5.

Democracy Demands Co-operative Living

By L. K. BISHOP
Regional Director, The National Conference of Christians and Jews, Inc.
1614 Chemical Building,
St. Louis 1, Missouri

DEMOCRACY is essentially co-operative living. It is a way of life in which men and women practicing different cultures, creeds, and customs can live together with mutual respect, teamwork and brotherhood.

America's experiment in political democracy has brought to her shores citizens from forty-seven old world nations, of all racial strains and religious beliefs. We are still experimenting to determine whether or not men and women can learn to live and work together in one nation if their roots lie in various national, ethnic, and religious soils.

The splendor of America is to be found in her people, Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, Oriental and Occidental, Black and White, urban and rural. When the late President Roosevelt declared, "America is the greatest team of free peoples on earth," he was mindful of the fact that we are 60 million Anglo-Saxon, 15 million Germans, 10 million Irish, 9 million Slavs, 5 million Italians, 4 million Scandinavians, 2 million French, one million each of Finns, Lithuanians, and Greeks, 5 million Jews, 13 million Negroes, and one and a half million Indians, Orientals, and Mexicans.

While the greatness of America is found in her diversity, her rich cultural heritage, and her ability to assimilate the cultural contributions of every people, the danger of America is also found in her people. We have found it difficult, through the years, to develop and practice the ideals of democracy. Ominous voices are warning us that the greatest threat to our American way of life today is intolerance, divisiveness, and group conflicts.

Recently President Harry Truman wrote a warning to our nation in which he stated, "No nation is more vulnerable to intolerance and bigotry than America, for no nation is composed of more diverse races and differing creeds than the land of the free."

We emerge from four years of war, preceded by ten years of economic struggle and depression, into a state of psychological hostility. The alert observer is aware of the group strife, racial suspicion, religious intolerance and industrial clashes which are symptomatic of hostility in human relations. Witch hunts for so-called un-Americans are characterized by attacks and counter-attacks of citizen on citizen. Eight hundred groups are now organized in America to suppress so-

called "foreigners." National organizations numbering 120 and local organizations totaling approximately 800 are at work to suppress Jews in our society.

A recent poll indicated that thirteen percent of the people questioned would join a hate campaign against Jews, and an additional twelve percent were undecided. They would not lend their names but they thought such a campaign might solve a problem. Eleven percent of the people polled think that Negroes are a menace to America and would support a hate campaign against them. Seven percent indicated that they would endorse another persecution campaign against the Catholic church. The anti-Protestant hate addicts range from seven percent to thirteen percent. These are symptoms which we dare not ignore if we propose to maintain the public health, protect the common welfare and expand the teamwork of our democracy.

It is ironical that America, the strongest nation in the world, which controls the largest portion of the world's industrial and natural resources, is at the present time stricken with fear and anxiety. The peoples of America are suspicious, uncertain, and insecure. We are rearing our children in an atmosphere which is electrified by anxiety.

Some among us fear our Russian allies and are certain that we will be destroyed by them if we give them our full confidence. Others fear our British allies, mistrust their diplomacy, and attribute to them superior skills in international intrigue.

Even more dangerous for our international security and unity are the fears that we harbor relating to our fellow American citizens. There are those among us who have been reared to believe that 5 million Jewish citizens of America are a threat to our capitalistic system and seek to control or overthrow our economy.

There are others who have been lead to believe that the 23 million Catholics who live as law-abiding tax-paying American citizens are seeking to overthrow democracy. There are various anxieties which indicate that the roots of these fears run deep.

Others are afraid of the 13 million Negroes in our midst, believing that they are a threat to the economy and culture of the 120 million white citizens. During the war we became desparately afraid of the 126,000 Japanese Americans on our west coast. and we took measures boardering on hysteria to control these citizens and their behavior.

These suspicions, fears and anxieties are evidence of the disease which gnaws at the vitals of our society. Prejudice, persecution, and hate hysteria have hounded every step of our democracy for 170 years. Our goal has been to forge "one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all." *E Pluribus Unum* has been our slogan. On the Statue of Liberty we inscribed the words:

"Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddling masses yearning
to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your
teeming shore,
Send these, the homeless, the
tempest-tossed, to me:
I lift my lamp beside the golden
door."

Yet we continue to rear each new generation of American youth in an atmosphere that causes them to believe

that ethnic, racial, religious and cultural groups which are different from their own are unworthy of full citizenship and the benefits of a full democracy. We continue to build a society which tolerates hate hucksters, hate publishers, and hate orators who travel up and down our land disseminating an infectious and deadly poison which impares the mental, emotional and social health of America.

We continue to harbor suspicions and fears which make it impossible for the peoples of America to unite in solving the political, social and economic problems that confront them. This problem of disunity, discord and open violence between groups of Americans has become our number one civic problem.

Traditionally America turns to education when she faces any insurmountable problem. In the colonial days when she desired democracy, education was drafted to create a literate public that could go to the polls, read the ballot, and cast its vote. When America wanted to declare universal citizenship, education was called to create free public schools which would prepare men and women for intelligent citizenship. When she desired a religious nation, education was instructed to establish seminaries to prepare clergy and religious leaders for the American churches.

In the days when America desired prohibition, the forces of education were drafted to educate for abstinence. When America found her youth were physically or mentally unfit for military service, she turned to the educators of the nation to correct these defects. When the President of the United States became aware of the dangers of isolationism, he turned to the schools of the nation and called on them to create a world-minded generation which would enable us to participate fully in a global strategy for building international peace.

The most recent honor which has come to educators comes out of the discovery of nucular energy. Men of science were called from the ranks of education and were set to the task of preserving our nation through scientific research. As a result of the honor derived from this contribution, the prestige of education has reached a new high. In our town we have a saying—Fifty years ago when we wanted to launch a new venture we sought the blessing of God; now we seek the blessing of science.

In the light of this great tradition, it is not surprising that when disunity, civil strife, and group tensions are threatening our internal security, we turn to education to develop a new technique of human relations. We ask that skills be developed which will resolve group hostility, fear and suspicion which now threaten our national welfare. America today is turning to men and women who control the intellectural resources of the nation. To the colleges, universities, elementary and secondary schools we turn with a cry born out of anguish, suffering, and strife which have arisen from prejudice, discord, hostility and disunity. We cry, "Teach our people to live together in confidence, respect, and amity. Teach the peoples of our democracy the secrets of teamwork and cooperation. Create within each citizen a sense of mutual dependence and common concern. Make the bonds of our democratic citizenship stronger than the divisive forces which operate in our midst."

True to their noble heritage, educators are answering this cry. By the thousands they are joining head and heart to create skills, techniques and know-how for a nation-wide venture in intergroup education. Millions of dollars are being spent in this pioneer movement designed to develop an army of educators who are equipped to teach Americans to appreciate, respect, and cooperate with their fellow Americans. The social scientist, educators, publishers, and administrators are uniting to answer the challenge. Once again we are putting ourselves in the debt of the forces of education without which democracy would soon perish.

Let us define this pioneer movement in modern education. What is the task and what are the purposes of this new emphasis? Some call it intergroup education. Others call it intercultural education. Whatever its title, it is an attempt to rethink our basic convictions regarding human relations. It is an honest effort, in the light of modern history, to examine the meaning of the old terms: democracy, the American way, freedom, liberty, justice, and equality.

There is a growing feeling that if we keep any of these rights and privileges for ourselves, we must guarantee them to all other citizens of our democracy. If we are to preserve our own security as citizens of a democratic nation, we must guarantee to others, the rights and dignities we want to keep for ourselves. A bitter lesson has come us out of the experience of Germany. We know now that as long as one group is insecure, no group is safe. The prejudice, bigotry, violence, and persecution which is focused on one group today, may be focused on my group tomorrow. Intergroup education is an effort to examine the contradictions and inconsistencies in our democratic pattern and to interpret the continuing threat of Hitler philsophy to our American way of life.

A second purpose of this pioneer movement in education, is to educate for better human relations, and especially for better group relations. Our nation has been at its best at those periods when all groups, racial, religious, ethnic and cultural have been working together for one common goal. There is greater advantage to all of us when we work as a team.

Intergroup education is education for democracy and for democratic living. It is an attempt to teach understanding and appreciation of one group for another, or better, of all groups for all other groups. In this great democratic experiment, there is yet to be developed the pattern of life in which the majority and minority groups can participate fully in teamwork and cooperation with full confidence and mutual respect.

Young people must live in an America where there are 45 million Protestants, 23 million Roman Catholics, and 5 million Jews. They have the right to be taught and trained in the attitudes and emotional reactions which will allow them to include these peope in the term "American" and recognize them as fellow citizens without fear or misgiving. There are basic differences in Americans which may never be resolved. If men and women are to live together and respect each other in spite of these differences, education must give them the tools for building better human relations with what the sociologists call "the out-

group." These mental tools will help Mr. Average Citizen live side by side with his neighbor without anxieties, suspicions, fears, or condemnations.

A fourth purpose of intergroup education is to establish a cosmopolitan sensitivity which will condition our youth for world citizenship. Most of us are convinced that we are destined to live in a one-world society. The adjustments and emotional conditioning necessary for world citizenship are far beyond our comprehension at this time. However we are conscious of the fact that we must relieve the anxieties, frustrations, and hostilities of citizens who are destined to live in close proximity with neighbors of all creeds, races, and nationalities. The attitudes that arise out of ethnocentrism and group superiority have created hostility and violence between clans, tribes, nations, races through the centuries. If we are to find a pattern of human relations which will allow us to solve our problems with amity and understanding, if we are to live in a world which is free from liquidation by war and extermination by concentration camps, we must establish the attitudes which will enable us to respect and appreciate those who differ in political, racial or religious views.

This science of human engineering is in truth a pioneer science. We have few skills, few laboratory techniques, few tools with which to accomplish our tasks. It is paradoxical that physical science has made such rapid progress that we can now make contacts with the moon, and it is prophecied that we soon will be able to project radar waves to the sun. In spite of this, so retarded is the science of human relations, that we are unable to make cultural or intellectual contacts with our neighbors in the next block or with the religious or ethnic group which lives across the tracks.

In terms of modern communication, we are still dependent on pony express methods for intellectual and emotional communication between groups that differ within our American society. To change the figure of speech, while the physicist in his highly technical laboratory knows how to split the atom, in human relations we are still trying to split the atom with an ax.

Recognizing the backwardness of our science in human engineering the forces interested in intergroup education have enlisted the genius of education, government, business, religion and social science. Fourteen nationally recognized organizations are at work sponsoring, encouraging and endorsing experiments in this area. As individual scientists worked in their separate laboratories to discover the secret of releasing nuclear energy, so these national organization are cooperating to find the secret of human engineering which will bring to us a greater age than the atomic age, an age in which mankind can replace bigotry and fear with cooperation and confidence.

The National Conference of Christians and Jews has been particularly active in this field. Under its supervision six nation-wide experiments have been conducted during the past two years.

(1) Eighteen public school systems are cooperating in conducting programs and experiments under the guidance of the American Council on Education. Under the able supervision of Dr. Hilda Taba the faculties

of these eighteen systems are attempting to develop curricula, teaching methods, and materials and at the same time gain an insight to and an understanding of the tensions and group conflicts which exist in their schools.

(2) As a pre-service teacher training program, the National Conference is cooperating with teacher training institutions in developing skills and techniques as a regular part of the training program for younger teachers. Dr. Lloyd Cook of Ohio University is supervising this program in nine institutions.

(3) Each summer there are from 12 to 24 universities which join with the National Conference in sponsoring workshops for developing resources and leadership in intergroup education. These workshops have been the speer head of the movement as they develop curriculum units, resource materials, and bibliographies for use in every area of education.

(4) Educational groups across the nation have accepted the suggestion and encouragement of the National Conference in devoting their yearbooks to this theme. Two of the most recent publications are the yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies entitled *Democratic Human Relations,* and the yearbook of the California Elementary Principals Association entitled *Education For Cultural Unity.*

(5) Under the direction of Dr. Howard Wilson of Harvard University a study of teaching materials used in schools and colleges has been made to discover how religious, racial and national groups are treated in the textbooks. At the completion of this study, recommendations will be made to publishers suggesting the points at which American culture groups have been unfairly treated and pointing out the places in which they have been ignored entirely.

(6) At the present time negotiations are under way with the National Council of Teachers of English for a series of phamphlets and books designed to aid teachers in the use of literature for creating intergroup understanding and goodwill.

In addition to these special projects, thousands of classroom teachers are at work using their own classrooms as a laboratory. Aware of the problems that exist in their own community and in their own school, they are attempting to build better human relations and to increase amity and mutual respect among the groups for which they are responsible.

These experiments and individual contributions are of inestimable value in the development of this new science of human engineering. The yeoman service of the classroom teacher will finally determine whether or not we can educate for better human relations.

The task that lies before us is one at which all of us must work. It cannot be assigned exclusively to the National Conference of Christians and Jews, to the American Council on Education, or to the National Education Association. Neither can it be exclusively a project of the local schools. It is a joint effort, a cooperative task which demands the full impact of the forces of education. This new challenge that is laid before us is not a fad in the educational world. It is an integral part of every subject that is now being taught in the public schools. Intergroup education is not

a new subject for which a new teacher can be employed and given full responsibility. Rather it is an attempt to present the subject matter of every department with an emphasis and perspective which will help history, literature, science, art, music, and athletics to contribute to harmonious living. It is an attempt to interpret all education so as to increase group appreciation and to establish goodwill between those groups in America which have failed to cooperate or to enjoy mutual respect. There is a firm conviction on the part of educators that the techniques of education can be used to lesson group hostility and fear, just as the techniques of propaganda have been used to intensify hostility and fear.

There are ways of teaching every subject in the school curriculum which will build better human relations, create more cordial understanding between groups that differ and allow the children of the new world to become men and women of goodwill. The teacher in the classroom, the coach on the athletic field, and the instructor in the laboratory can present the truths of music, drama, athletics, and science so as to reduce hostility and establish respect and appreciation for our fellow citizens.

There is a genuine thrill that comes to most of us when we recognize that we may become a pioneer. Here is a challenge for educators to launch out into the new areas of democratic experimentation. Whatever the field or particular interest, it can be used to educate for better human relations. Teachers can experiment with new techniques for establishing cordiality, cooperation, and confidence. One educator recently urged his faculty: "Seek to build an attitude of world citizenship in the thinking of students. Create in yourself and in your students a genuine appreciation for every cultural group in your community. Let your subject matter be presented in such a way as to stimulate confidence in every group that is a part of the American way. By educating for democracy and life, we educate for world citizenship."

Science has increased our comforts, enlarged our world, and multiplied our pleasures. We stand bewildered as we contemplate the achievements of physical science within the past century. Our bewilderment is only increased, however, when we realize that neither science nor education has kept pace in the area of human relations. Democracy is dependent not upon the gadgets, test tubes, machines, and synthetics that its people develop, but rather it depends upon the ability of its people to learn to live together in teamwork and mutual appreciation.

It appears that the very security of the human race depends upon our ability to learn this lesson of community relations. The most difficult field to which man can set his mind in our generation is this field of human engineering. It is far easier to labor with test tubes, minerals, or medicine. Just as we attack the problem of cancer, so we must enter the field of bigotry, hate, and prejudice. We must determine to find the source of human strife, discord, and hostility, even as we are determined to find the source of polio infection. The best place to think through and practice intelligent human relations is in the classroom. The best laboratory for human engineering is in the school room where democracy has its best opportunity and its greatest challenge.

Vocational Guidance *for* Women

By LULU HOLMES

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IN common with the experience of other colleges, about two years ago the women students of the State College of Washington expressed a need for more vocational advice and education in the fields of work available to women.

Whatever guidance had been given to the students of the college up to that time had been given by the professors within the various schools and colleges and departments. That advice was predicated upon the choice of the individual student to enter that school, and the adviser moved on the assumption that the individual wanted specialized training within that field. The result was that very few students had either the opportunity, or the courage, to seek guidance which cut across departmental lines.

The problem appeared to be twofold, therefore. There was the need for unbiased vocational guidance, independent of any departmental prides or pressures. Secondly, there was a need for the education of students and faculty members to the possibilities of an initial period of liberal arts background with only one or two electives in the fields of the student's possible interests at the begining of the college course. Student organizations have undertaken to work toward these objectives and have been so successful that it may prove stimulating to administrative officers in other institutions to know something about their program. It is almost axiomatic in personnel programs to begin where we are with what we have, since none but the most favored institutions are equipped with trained workers in every phase.

The Associated Women Students appointed a Vocational Guidance committee of students, with four or five faculty advisers, to undertake the beginnings of the first part of the problem, that of vocational counseling. The committee agreed that the beginnings must be within the limits of the student members' time and ability, and must take advantage of the specialized abilities of professors in all the departments in this college. Each department head was asked to assign a member of his faculty who could be called upon to talk with the students from other departments of the college who might be sent to him by the committee. The five girls on the committee unselfishly undertook to keep office hours a few hours each day in a temporarily vacated office in the Administration Building. There they advertised themselves to all the women students as older girls who were in a position to put any confused students in touch with the people who could help them. From the beginning it has been clear in the minds of the student committee members that they are themselves in no position to advise or counsel, but that they must act merely as liaison officers between the needy student and the succor which she seeks.

This committee has accumulated in its office a library of pamphlets and magazines and books covering the

whole range of vocational openings for women, and has there duplicates of the catalogue cards for the books on the subject which are in our college library. The committee members provide their clients with reading material along the lines of their interests. An assistant in the office of the Dean of Women has worked very closely with this committee during the past year, and with her advice the girls have developed a brief case history card which they fill out for every client who comes to their office. After the committee member's interview with the girl it is recommended that she consult faculty members in the various departments in which she may be interested. The committee member makes definite appointments for the girl who frequently would not have the courage or the initiative to make such appointments for herself. The committee has also planned a brief interview sheet for the use of the faculty members. This sheet plus a photostatic copy of the student's high school record (if a freshman) obtained from the Registrar's office, plus her entrance examination records sent directly, at the request of the committee, to each instructor involved, forms the basis for the interview. The instructor fills out the sheet after his interview and returns it to the Vocational Committee where it is kept on file with the case history card. This year we have been able to provide another instrument, the Kuder Preference Record, at a cost of seven cents per student. Members of the committee have been trained to give the test, and it is then turned over to an assistant who interprets it to the student during an interview arranged by the committee.

Business was slow at first, and only the interest of the committee members kept them there day after day with very little to do the first months of last year, However, their worth was advertised by the few clients who did trickle in, and who received thorough satisfaction from the efforts of the committee members. This year the girls have all the business they can care for, and the assistant is devoting almost full time with her interviews and interpretations of the Kuder tests. The interest of the institution has been sufficiently aroused so that the administration has authorized the giving of the Strong Interest Blank to every entering student, boy or girl, the second semester of this year. The results will be available as a check against the Kuder scores for the use of the assistant in her interviews with the girls at the beginning of the second semester.

The other half of the problem—that of curriculum revision to allow new students more time before settling into a "major" department has been attacked by Mortar Board, senior women's honorary group. Once a month at Sunday afternoon coffee hours they invite faculty members, and any students who are interested, to discuss the problems of the post-war college and necessary changes in the curriculum. These girls, who are leaders on the campus, are reading widely and have grouped their discussions under the following heads: Aims of Education; Liberal or Technological Education; Curriculum Issues (content); Curriculum Issues (techniques); Guidance in Vocational and Extra-Curricular (Choices); Adult Education; Conclusions. They are creating a great interest on the part of students in a need for a liberal educational background for any vocational or professional skill. As a re-

sult there is a student demand that more of this liberal background be inserted into the first and second year of the curriculum of our technical schools in order that the entering students may have more time for thinking through their choice of a life work before they become enmeshed in strictly departmental requirements. To our great satisfaction the faculty is heeding the student opinion which is being formulated through these discussions, and the faculty committee on curriculum is already working toward introducing some of the suggestions resulting from these Sunday afternoon student-faculty discussions.

A third device, also student-sponsored, is being worked out by a council of sorority and dormitory presidents of the college. Since they have direct contact with entering freshmen women, they are keenly aware of the superficial approach to the college experience which is typical of the average entering freshman. They realize that she not only has lacked vocational counseling during her high school years, but she also lacks any conception of the broader cultural value of the college experience. This group has devised a questionnaire, largely a check list, designed to discover what curricular and extra-curricular guidance all of the girls in the college may have enjoyed during their preparatory course; what of our present guidance facilities on the campus they have found most helpful; and which of a proposed list of added devices they would like to see introduced here. This group of officers will give the questionnaire to all the women of the college. The results will be tabulated by our AWS Vocational Committee, and we should have a fair picture of the guidance program needed for our campus in the years ahead. It is the purpose of the AWS Vocational Committee to send to each high school, from which there is any considerable number of girls on the campus, the picture of the guidance facilities brought to us by their graduates. This committee has been very successful in the past in sending letters to the high school papers on the importance of vocational choices, and a pamphlet which they sent to the high school seniors was well received. High school administrators and students alike are more willing to accept this kind of advice, and perhaps implied criticism, more affably from students than they would receive it from college administrators.

This picture of student effort to solve a problem which all campuses are feeling at the present time is outlined here in a spirit of humility as evidence of what can be done in an institution where there is no trained counselor service *per se* available. The combined results of these student projects are rapidly bringing the administration to the point of procuring the trained personnel which is necessary. More important, they have built the right attitude on the part of students toward such counseling programs. Inquiries on campuses where well-staffed counseling programs are available have often indicated a gap between the student who needs the help which is available. Because our program has been handled *by* students *for* students, that gap has been bridged, we hope permanently, in the minds of the women students at the State College of Washington. If and when the trained personnel is available here, and it will be coming soon because of this student-expressed need for it, there should be no problem of getting the student to the counselor.

English *and* Global Communication

By LEON MONES
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IT takes no prophetic vision to realize that science, economics, and war are contracting the world and its affairs. Cultures and climes that once flourished remote from one another are being pulled to a centre and woven into a pattern of global incident.

This is simply saying that every day it becomes more apparent that people and countries, societies and human affairs are steadily undergoing a consolidation into an ultimate single organization.

Sooner or later there will have to emerge some kind of language that will be the common denominator of communication over the world. It may be some artificial language like Esperanto or Ido, though this is unlikely because artificial languages do not develop the social and psychological intimacies of personal meaning for people. It may be that some jargon tongue like Yiddish or Ladino may, because of its many linguistic contacts provide a basis of a universal language. It may perhaps be that some basic skeleton language, some language reduced to its fundamental essentialism like Ogden's Basic English, may be developed to serve a global purpose. At all events, if the world is to continue along the line of some kind of human advancement, a medium of universal communication will have to function.

Of course there are certain media of universal communication already in existence and already functioning. There is, for instance, mathematics, or the codes of formulation of physics or chemistry, or music or international telegraphic codes. But these are not languages in which people can express and debate proposals, and effect the meeting of minds that makes for a unity of cooperative action. In ancient times, Latin, of course, in some sense served as a universal langauge, but only for the professional intellectuals.

Perhaps English may become the universal language. It certainly has many elements in its favor, such as elasticity of construction, simplicity of grammar, richness of idiom, ease of pronunciation, etc. But just because English may become so important to global communication in the emerging days, it will have to be taught far differently from the way it has been taught. It will have to be taught as a great social instrument rather than as a code of linguistic practice. Suppose we see just what that means.

Such studies as grammar, etymology, rhetoric, etc., will sink in importance and estimation. These were the elegancies and preciosities of outworn academic pursuit. The study of

grammar was academically safe and socially secure. One could not get into social difficulties and be accused of unorthodox thinking when he taught grammar. It was codified, formulated, authorized. That it did not help much in speaking or writing, was of no great consequence any more than was the fact that it did nothing to create language power or truth of expression. Rhetoric had been taught by the old Greek sophists, not because it bore any relation to truth, but on the contrary, because it could help people to becloud and befog the truth and hypnotize victims into illusory thinking.

At all events, if English or any other language is to be taught as a medium of global communication, it will have to be taught through principles of social psychology and not through linguistic doctrines.

Three steps will be essential to success. First, the study of languages will arise in the organization of social experiences. The child will not start to study languages by being taught about nouns, and verbs, and sentences, and such other linguistic materia. The child's study of language will begin with the basic organization of his social experience, for only in the verbalization of such experiences can language facility be generated. Language is the activity by means of which human beings communicate their social needs and aspirations, and the first step in teaching a language is to make a child conscious of social needs.

The second step will be to make the child conscious that his social experiences must become dynamic and purposive. It is only as the child is given an impetus toward conduct, a goal—that expression assumes importance to him. Few people are interested in language except as it does something for them. Certainly, the most powerful degree of language facility comes to those who use it in the realization of some definitely conceived purpose.

The third step will be to see that the child becomes involved in the enterprises of real social concern. It is only in the expression and communication of social concern that language flourishes and develops.

Too much of the old teaching of language depended upon private appreciation, enjoyment, and expression. The personal and private indulgence in language arts leads to the possession and practice of private codes and doctrines and dogmas. The Gertrude Steins, the James Joyces, the Hart Cranes, the Edith Sitwells, etc., are not really practicing language as a method of social communication, they are indulging in the employment of private language symbols for the utterance of little private patterns of meaning for the edification of little private coteries of cognoscenti who are in the know.

The point is this: we have in the teaching of English been indulging in interesting and often attractive pastimes and elegancies. Many of us are very fond of the parlor games involved in the diagraming of sentences, the guessing of word origins, the search for synonyms, etc. Many of us like to track to lairs of meaning the verbal monstrosities created by James Joyce, words like kicksheet, for instance. Yes, it is pleasurable to occupy oneself with discussions concerning the dative in English, the career of English inflections, or the origin of the expression OK. The point is that all this is not teaching English.

The future of English teaching must be based upon the recognition of the fact that English, like any other language, is in its essence not a code, not a discipline, not even a science. It is human conduct. It is the business of human beings seeking to communicate with one another as they try to construct a more satisfactory pattern of human relationship.

Already comes the revolution to some degree. The semanticists are seeking new explanations of meaning. The linguo-mathematicians are seeking to reconstruct language so as to permit it to express emotional quality and quantity in mathematical measurement. The linguo-psychologists are seeking some overall principles of language phenomena. The anti-propagandists are trying to teach us to read between the lines and to find meaning between the words.

Personally, we do not believe much in such revolutionary panaceas. Semanticists, for instance, may escape from conduct and activity while they grope for the exact formula of word-meaning. The anti-propagandists become cynics who profess the duplicity of all human communication. The linguo-mathematicians forget that a mathematical formula is not a language idiom.

In short, we must realize that the new teaching of language in the emerging period of global reconstruction must be somehow tied with all other human concerns. There is no language independent of human enterprise. Isolate language as an element in itself and it evaporates into nothingness. It is only as language functions in evolving human conduct that it continues vigorous and meaningful. The language teaching of the future must rest upon the needs of communication serving a contracting world of expanding social achievement.

ANNUAL SEMINAR ON READING DISABILITIES

February 3 to February 7, 1947, inclusive.

The 1947 Seminar on Developmental Reading will be conducted by the Reading Clinic Staff, Department of Psychology, Temple University, from February 3 to February 7, inclusive. Lectures, demonstrations, and discussions will be used to develop the central theme: *Differentiated Corrective and Remedial Reading.*

Topics for successive days are: Approaches to Analysis of Reading Disabilities, The Analysis Program, Case History, Social and Emotional Correlates, physical and Neurological Factors, Capacity for Reading, Reading and General Language Achievement, Classification of Reading Problems, Remedial and Corrective Procedures. The activities of the Institute will be differentiated to meet the needs of classroom teachers, remedial teachers, school psychologists, supervisors, administrators, neurologists, and vision specialists.

Nationally known specialists in reading and related fields will conduct the seminars and demonstrations.

Enrollment is limited by advanced registration. For copies of the program and other information regarding this one-week Institute, write to Dr. Emmett Albert Betts, Reading Clinic, Temple University, Philadelphia 22, Pennsylvania.

Stimulants *for a* Classic

By J. STEWART SHELL
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"A classic is made not born. A classic is a book made classical by a steady devotion of generations of readers." Accepting this as a reasonable definition and also recognizing the fact that a classic is not necessarily a masterpiece, one need not hesitate in bracketing Stevenson's *Kidnapped* among those books that have stood the tests of time and universality.

Pupils in secondary schools, however, are singularly unimpressed (and rightly so) by any *ex cathedra* encomium such as "classical." The book must stand the scrutinizing test of *this* generation. *Kidnapped* in this matter assays high, but it is the purpose of this paper to indicate some devices whereby what we have chosen to identify as a classic may readily assimilate the accretions which are the concommitants of the march of time.

Not without justice are current references to "pernicious reading for plot." Thanks to the transcendant skill of Robert Louis Stevenson as a craftsman, there is no great necessity for teaching-stress upon the plot structure of the novel *Kidnapped.* In this case he who reads even with a moderate degree of intensity may follow without undue difficulty the thread of the narrative. Consequently, if the instructor aims to achieve the maximum in pupil participation, he must bring into use all available stimulants, aesthetic and ideological. This revitalizing process is at once a pedagogic obligation and opportunity.

The materials which follow have emerged from the proving ground of actual classroom experience and are here presented in the hope that they may be of value in guiding eager minds to the treasure hoard of Stevenson's novel of adventure.

In no sense are the following groupings of projects to be considered arbitrary, but they are useful (if James Boswell would sanction the paraphrase) as cloak pins from which the furniture may be hung. Selected bibliographies follow most divisions.

I. FOLKWAYS

The opportunity for a study of the customs and manners of the Scots (particularly the Highlanders of a former day) is here notable. In the above respect, the often subtle differences between Highlanders and Lowlander are a real source of interest to many pupils. Likewise, an examination of the ramifications of the clan system leads to a consciousness of the motives and social "pushes and pulls" that activate group life. The manners of the Scottish people call out responsive comparisons, as do their superstitions; *e.g,* the left-handed farewell of Alan and David.

The "dour nature of the Scots is frequently pointed to as a racial characteristic, but no better refutation of this idea could be made than a reference to the numerous evidence in *Kidnapped* of the hilarity of Alan Stewart and the bubbling good humor of some of his fellows. A class discussion of

this point will tend toward the development upon the part of the pupil of a healthy questioning attitude toward the easy and therefore dangerous generalizations which he meets both within the classroom and without.

Adam, F., Clans, Septs and Regiment of the Scottish Highlands (3rd ed., 1934)
Cunningham, Audrey, The Loyal Clans (1932)
MacGregor, A., Feuds of the Clans (1935)

II. VALUES FOR SOCIAL LIVING

A careful study of Stevenson's characterizations is rewarding in the development of desirable social and ethical attitudes. Recognizing the adolescent tendency to see character traits in stark black or white, the instructor guiding the study of *Kidnapped* may call attention to the shadings from the two extremes. The villians of this novel are not entirely bad, nor are the hero and his main companions spotless.

The futility of gambling is also established, without recourse to pedagogic or clerical urges; the lesson comes out of the plot and is integral to it. Respect for elders who deserve it, a sense of the sacredness of friendship, and a realization of the sanctity of promise are but a few of the socio-ethical values inherent in the story.

III. GEOGRAPHY

The place of the atlas in the study of literature as stated so well by Christopher Morley in *John Mistletoe,* is felt forcibly in the case of *Kidnapped,* most editions of which contain a map or maps showing the course of the wanderings of David Balfour. As these adventurous journeyings touched with special significance the islands west of the Scottish mainland, a comparative study of the travels of Samuel Johnson and James Boswell and of the more recent wanderers in the Hebrides becomes worth-while.

Boswell, James, Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides (1936)
Hannan, Thomas, Beautiful Isle of Mull (1926)
Johnson, James B., Place Names of Scotland (new and enl. ed., 1934)
Pearson, Hesketh and Kingsmill, Hugh, Skye High (1938)
Ross, John, Land of the Gael (1930)
Sutherland, Halliday, Hebridean Journey (1940)

IV. ART AND DRAMA

Drawings, based upon textual hints, may be made by pupils of artistic bent. Among the many subjects lending themselves to pictorial representation are Cluny's Cage, the House of Shaws, The Covenant, and Sterling Castle. Models also may be constructed. Usually there is an ample supply of pupil-artists, and jaded indeed are those who do not respond affirmatively to this experiment put forth to waken interest and provoke more accurate powers of observation.

Various incidents in *Kidnapped* are of the stuff of drama and may be staged successfully Pupil committees may be chosen for the writing of the dialogue, the directing, and other adjuncts. The resultant chance for actual performance is grasped by pupils enthusiastic about "play-acting."

If the motion picture version of *Kidnapped* can be secured, a class may carry out a project in critical evaluation. Fortunately, bibliographical materials in the field of study of the motion picture are extensive. Particularly to be noted in this respect is the

general question of adaptation of novel material to the milieu of the film. As "modifications are inevitable when a novel is turned into a film or play," pupils may consider seriously the matters of deletion and relative stress. Stimulating is the consideration of the desirability of the rentention or "building up" of incidents for film presentation. The bibliographical item which follows is thought provoking:

Seldes, Gilbert, "Vandals of Hollywood; Why a Good Movie Cannot Be Faithful to the Original Book or Play," Sat. Rev. of Lit. 14: 3-4 0 17 '36

V. MUSIC

The piping contest between Alan Stewart and Robin Oig, during the former's sojourn in the Braes of Balquhidder, is one of the salient incidents of the novel. Pupils of Scottish extraction are especially susceptible to the salutes, marches, and laments as played upon the bagpipe. The following is a representative list of phonograph recordings of bagpipe music. Most of these records can be purchased for thirty-five cents each and may be added to the musical library of the school:

Abercairney Highlanders
Athole and Breadalbane
Athole Highlanders
Bluebells of Scotland
Bluebonnets Over the Border
The Campbells Are Coming
Wae's Me for Prince Charlie

The following books are useful:

Askew, G., (comp.) Bibliography of Bagpipe (1932)

Campbell, John L., Highland Songs of the Forty-Five (1933)

VI. HISTORY

For the historically minded pupil there is opportunity for supplementary reading of materials exemplifying both academic and fictionized approaches to the period that *Kidnapped* represents. Comparisons may be made of Stevenson's fictionized reconstruction with that of other writers in the same field, and a general appraisal may result from a study of how selected romantic novelists use their historical sources to secure reader appeal.

Broster, Dorothy, Gleam in the North (1931)

Chidsey. Donald B., Bonnie Prince Charlie (1928)

Duke, W., Prince Charles Edward and the Forty-Five (1938)

Edwald, Alexander C., Life and Times of Prince Charles Stuart (1878)

Forbes, Robert, Lyon in Mourning (1895)

Mackenzie, C., Prince Charlie (1938, reissue)

Norie, William Drummond, Life and Adventures of Prince Charles Edward Stuart (1903)

O'Sullivan, J. W., 1745 and After (1938)

Wilkinson, Clennell, Bonnie Prince Charlie (1940)

CONCLUSION

No attempt has been made in this paper to deal with problems of language, which in *Kidnapped* are largely technical in nature, nor have matters of literary dissection been included.

Limitation of space forbids an expansion of the outline herein presented, but further details and devices may be fitted into the general scheme. The primary object has been to suggest means of motivating a more eager reading of a book written by a man who had the spirit of adventure in his soul.

Geometry *as a* Natural Way *of* Thinking

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GEOMETRY has been taught systematically as a school subject for two thousand years and more. It is the most famous of all branches of mathematics. With the possible exception of theology, more books have been written on geometry than on any subject of which we know. And yet teachers, when faced with the perennial, annoying question of: "What is geometry good for?", are very often at a loss for an effective answer. With the introduction in the last few decades of democratic principles in our public schools, this sort of questioning has been decidedly on the increase, as the pupil no longer can be told to mind his tongue.

In the interest of self-preservation, teachers have banded together, so to speak, and pooled their answers, which, in their opinion, would satisfy the pupil and, at the same time, justify their jobs. Then, when the occasion arises, one may dip into this potpourri of ready answers, in the bland hope that at least some of them will strike home and quell a seeming mutiny against geometry. Geometry, the pupil is told, is helpful, indispensable in fact, to the farmer, the carpenter, the engineer, the architect, and many other people.

Of what possible inducement these vague assurances are to the many girls, and even boys, taking geometry, is indeed an open question. But, at any rate, if the teacher claims that geometry is so helpful and even necessary to the carpenter or the engineer, then it is but fair and natural that these aims be lived up to in the teaching of the subject. Otherwise the teacher speaks with questionable authority for these professions or trades. Furthermore, were we to consult the "Fathers" of geometry, such as Pythagoras, Plato, and Euclid, they most certainly would raise their hands in holy horror and deny and denounce in no mistaken language the objectives so glibly defined by the modern teacher of geometry. By way of elucidation, they might say that the carpenter, the engineer, or the architect profit from the study of geometry as much as a beggar would profit from the crumbs that fall from a rich, well-stocked table. Nor can the teacher laugh them off with the remark that these ancient Greek geometers were all right in their day, but that now they are decidedly out of date—for the simple reason that he—the teacher—is still selling their wares.

The full impact of the meaning of geometry is brought home by the following remark attributed to Plato, "Even God geometrizes." Over the door of his school read the inscription:

"Let no one unacquainted with geometry enter here." In this school of his, where geometry was an indispensable prerequisite, he trained neither carpenters nor engineers but thinkers and future philosopher kings for his Republic. And, in accordance with the dictum to be enunciated much later by Baruch Spinoza (1632-77), that that which is excellent is as difficult as it is rare, Plato admonished his pupils that there was no royal road to geometry. In other words, geometry is a difficult subject; in fact so much so, that he who runs cannot read it. The Greek concept of geometry as a logical and natural way of thinking has been reiterated time and time again by great mathematicians and philosophers throughout the many centuries. Thus, Blaise Pascal (1623-62) said: "I think geometry the finest training the human mind can have. The whole art of reasoning is contained in its precepts."

No classroom teacher today will find fault with this classic concept of geometry. In fact, he is only too pleased to have one more ready answer on hand and a sound reason, to boot, why an intelligent boy or girl should be studying Geometry. No one will accuse the classroom teacher, or the textbook writer for that matter, of not stating adequately enough the aims and purposes of geometry, but unfortunately only in the preface of the textbook and in the brief introduction of the subject matter at the beginning of the course. After these preliminaries have been duly disposed of, these objectives, like the campaign promises of a politician, are forgotten and completely lost sight of. Gone are the carpenters, the engineers, the architects, the logicians that were paraded before the student's eyes, never to be seen or heard of again.

The only generous, but at the same time somewhat unpleasant, conclusion one can draw from this strange behavior of both the writer and the teacher is, that geometry is taken for a magic machine, as it were, through whose clever manipulations these goals are automatically, wholly or in part, attained. It reminds one of the Tibetan prayer wheel that the religious devotee industriously revolves with his foot by means of a foot paddle, while his thoughts are free to roam less celestial fields.

Let us be clear on at least one point. We have no quarrel with the aims and purposes of geometry as laid down by both the teacher and the textbook writer. If the technical professions, such as architecture, or engineering, or design be the goal, then let them stick to the subject and bring out in no mistaken terms the relationship that must necessarily exist between these fields and geometry. Or, if to the above aims, a purely abstract, geometric logic is also to be added, then, here too, the teacher has no alternative but to teach it as such and with this particular purpose clearly and explicitly in mind. No substitute will do.

I, for one, am inclined to accept geometry in the sense of a "natural way of thinking." By "natural" I here understand the order or arrangement that man instinctively follows when he "thinks." To the word "thinking" I shall give the most liberal and common, everyday interpretation—namely, the way we consciously or unconsciously plan things in our minds. Both creative and imitative "thinking" folow the same order or sequence. From our consideration we

shall exclude purposeless "thinking" such as daydreaming and other vagueries of one sort or another. In other words, we shall limit ourselves to purposeful "thinking" motivated by a desire to solve a problem. By means of examples of the most common, everyday occurrences, let us trace the order of our "thinking" processes.

Mary was invited to a "high class" party. Like every one else she wanted to be at her best. Consciously or unconsciously she wanted the other girls to envy her and the boys to admire her. After taking stock of her dresses, she found that none would do for so special an occasion at this! She must have a new dress! The dress she wanted, however, cost $27.75, some twenty dollars more than she had. Her mother could not afford to pay the balance, as she needed the money to run the house. She told Mary that she had enough dresses and even offered to make some alternations on one, so it, according to her, would look almost like new. But Mary was unreasonable and ill tempered. She quarreled with her mother, flew into a rage, and stayed home and sulked.

There was another girl, by the name of Alice. She too was invited to the party, and, like Mary, she wanted to be the life of the party. Her situation at home was very similar to that of Mary's. Her mother could not afford to buy her a new dress. But Alice had planned for the party somewhat earlier than had Mary. In the shops at first the more expensive dresses had caught her eye too, but, unlike Mary, she had finally compromised and selected a cheaper, but at the same time, a very attractive dress. However, in spite of all her economy and sensible choice, she was still $7.50 short. After thinking it over, she told the sales girl to set the dress aside for her for a week and made a small deposit. From then until the evening of the party her problem was how to "raise" the money. Once home that evening she reminded her dad of his long neglected, semi-personal, business correspondence and volunteered to type for him. She also called up the young married couple on her street and told them she would stay with the baby while they were at the movies. In the evening she made no excuses or raised objections, but willingly cleared the table after dinner and helped her mother in the kitchen with the dishes.

I am not quite sure whether by the end of the week Alice had *actually* earned the seven and one half dollars, but this much I do know: she got the dress, and, by what I hear, she had a wonderful time at the party.

Another example: Bill told me that he was going to "college" in the fall. Some months later, however, when he was supposed to be hundreds of miles away, I met him on a street corner at home. To explain his unexpected presence, he told me that his "Old Man" did not have enough money to send him to Colgate (this was the first time I heard him mention Colgate), and besides, to his great surprise, they would not honor his high school diploma! As if to relieve my mind, he hastily assured me that he would soon find a job, as his "Old Man" had a "pull" with some obscure "ward healer" of the district

I also knew Harry. Financially his parents were no better off than were those of Bill. Harry told me he was going to Hamilton (!). After studying the requirements he already

had filed application there and asked me if I would write a letter of recommendation to the dean. Later on in the fall, I chanced to meet his younger brother who was still in high school. He told me that Harry had worked all summer with a "road gang" and now was a freshman at Hamilton!

If we now go back and analyze the examples cited above, we shall find that all natural "thinking" falls of its own weight into three closely related parts. In the first category are the things we want, in the second—the things we have, and in the third and last—the things we lack in order to get what we want. In effective "thinking" each part is first considered separately, then in combination of all three, so as to get a clear picture of the whole. If too great a disparity is found to exist between these parts, then a necessary correction or adjustment must be made. Alice considered at first a "very" expensive dress, but after a rapid mental inventory she found that the gap between what she wanted and what she had was too great for her to bridge, so she compromised on a cheaper dress. Even so, she wanted more than she had (money to pay for) but within bounds of her ability to supply what she lacked. This ability to supply by "legitimate" means, mind you, what one lacks in order to get what one wants is the very soul in all problem "thinking." In the absence of such an ability or in the absence of such a lack—there is no problem nor is there any "thinking." Harry too had a problem. He wanted to go to Hamilton. After studying its entrance requirements, scholastic and monetary, he clearly defined what he lacked. Thus, having resolved his problem in its three natural division, he could look forward to a very likely solution.

In ineffective "thinking," on the other hand, the three categories are either indistinct, hopelessly jumbled together, as in the case of Bill, or a single category is so exaggerated at the expense of the others as to throw the whole "thinking" process completely out of gear, as in the case of Mary. Whenever the three divisions are confused and indistinct, the lack of ability to cope with that particular problem is clearly apparent. Whenever any one part is exaggerated at the expense of the rest, it is a likely sign of neurosis and the individual in question may, in desperation, resort to "illegitimate" means to get what he wants. Under the nervous tension one experiences during a difficult examination one is very apt to change arbitrarily the given premises, in order to extricate oneself from a dilemma. Thus, a geometry pupil, when hard pressed on an examination, will pretend that the given triangle is really isosceles, equilateral, or right, according to the demands of the occasion. In everyday life, many crimes are committed for the lack of ability to bridge by "legitimate" means the gap that must necessarily exist between artificially stimulated, exaggerated wants and the things one has.

Geometry teachers are only too familiar with the threefold set-up of the "demonstrative proof" to require any further elucidation. They, however, seem to convey the idea that this threefold division is somewhat artificial and only peculiar to geometry. Even the Greek geometers thought of the reasoning involved in geometry as some exotic thought process, worthy only of philosopher kings and the gods. It is,

perhaps, for this very reason that the threefold division here does not follow a natural course but rather an artificial, inverted sequence. It would be more natural and, in fact, more effective, to put the given part after that which is to be proved, followed by an analysis of that which is lacking.

The "demonstrative proof" of a familiar congruence theorem might be arranged as follows: (1) to prove congruent two given triangles; (2) given the two triangles in which the two sides and the included angle of one are equal respectively to the two sides and the included angle of the other; (3) an analysis of the method and the parts that are lacking in order to prove the two triangles congruent. Again, (1) to prove that the base angles of a given isosceles triangle are equal; (2) given a triangle with two equal sides; (3) lack of two congruent triangles by means of which the two angles can be proved equal (or any other convenient method). Or, take the Pythagorean theorem: (1) to prove that in a given right triangle the square on the hypothenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the two legs; (2) given a right triangle; (3) lack of squares on or of the three sides, as well as a convenient method that would link the two small squares to the larger one.

In this natural arrangement, the "proof" is the embodiment of the will and determination on the part of the operator to carry out the plan as outlined by the natural processes of "thinking." After the threefold analysis has been made, little or no "thinking" enters into the actual proof. It is rather a process of memory, one of cataloguing and recalling certain facts and analogous situations, a method of trial and error, one of experimentation, often guided by a blind hunch. Such a situation, of course, affords plenty of room for "brilliant" display of intuitive powers and offers a wide scope for a vivid imagination.

Classroom teachers, and textbooks writers as well, place undue weight on the proof itself, as if this were the main, if not the only, part of the problem that requires some thought. It is largely because of this misplaced emphasis that their attempts to apply the geometric method to everyday problems have, as a rule, resulted in a maze of confusion of ineffective definitions and profuse apologies. As a matter of fact, the threefold analysis of the problem bears the same relation to the proof of the problem as would a blueprint to the construction of a house. A careful analysis of a problem in geometry should receive as much if not more credit as the proof itself. It would be better by far to have the pupil make a "thought blueprint," as it were, of a theorem, than to attempt to reproduce its proof from memory.

However, far be it from me to minimize the importance of the proof! After all, of what value is our "thinking" if it leads to no solution? Of what value is the blueprint if a house cannot be built from it? The purpose here is simply to analyze and appraise each and every one of the parts that go into the making of the so-called "demonstrative proof." Each part is unique and has a function all of its own. The more clearly we understand the nature and function of each, the more effective will be our teaching.

In conclusion, I would like to make some suggestions that might prove helpful to both the classroom teacher

and the textbook writer. First of all, no teacher or author should promise more to the pupil than he or she can fulfill. If it is in engineering, architecture, and design that geometry is supposed to be so useful, then by all means support these claims by suitable examples and class exercises. The main reason, however, for teaching geometry should be that it affords the best and the most convenient training in effective, natural "thinking." Not only does it help us with our everyday problems, but also it makes us more resourceful and useful citizens. None of these objectives, however, will be achieved unless geometry is taught in the classroom with these objectives constantly in mind. In the introductory part of the course, pupils should be given ample time and practice to resolve some of their everyday problems into the three categories of natural "thinking." No proof should be required. Later on, from time to time, geometric problems may be clarified by recalling to mind similar situations in our everyday lives. Before rushing headlong into the so-called "proof," a "thought blueprint," as it were, should first be made. This sort of procedure requires no more time than some haphazard attempt at analysis, followed by a hit or miss fashion "proof." Personally, I think that it saves time. But after all, time is not so valuable that one cannot use it! Time! Time! We hear on all sides, and how we waste it!

Also, I think, some of the axioms might be restated or combined, as the occasion may demand, in such a way as to give us more effective tools to work with. Thus, the two axioms, "The whole is equal to the sum of its parts," and "Equals may be substituted for their equals in any process," may be combined whenever necessary to read: "The whole may be substituted for the sum of its parts."

Nowadays that picture illustrations are becoming so popular in our textbooks, great care and some knowledge should be exercised in presenting the geometric form in its proper light. Before using some geometric form as an illustration in a book, the author should make sure that he himself is familiar with the habitat and function of that particular form! A picture of a house under construction does not show "triangles" but rather chaos and confusion, whereas a finished house, built in a certain style, will! Geometric forms are very much like living things in that they are very particular about their environment and even their neighbors! Thus, the equilateral triangle must have at least a Gothic cathedral or a Jewish synagogue for a home, but if bad comes to worse, will condescend to appear on a Y.M.C.A. in brilliant electric lights. The habitat both of the square and the rhombus is among the decorative arts and neither would feel very much at home elsewhere. And so on, nearly every geometric form, either plane or solid, has a definite habitat and a definite function, a fact that the author should not overlook.

The Junior High School Today *and* Tomorrow

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WHEN children dislike school it is to be expected—after all a child is by nature non-conforming and by nature abhors anything that is confining and exacting. But when teachers *en masse* dislike school it is symptomatic of a condition that warrants attention. The Junior High School is a case in point.

When schools were reorganized on a 6-3-3 basis, the underlying purpose of the Junior High School was to be exploratory. It was to serve as a division of our secondary school set-up where the tastes, interests and capacities of pupils might have a try-out based upon real, first-hand experience which would enable them to find out what they may be able to do in school and outside and what they would like for further study and work. For this purpose shops of a vocational nature were established; foreign languages were introduced and also commercial subjects, such as; bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting. To facilitate and to supplement the work of the classroom and to stimulate further interest, provisions were also made for Clubs, Guidance and Supervised Study Periods. Teachers with special training were licensed and assigned to teach the various subjects. It was assumed, for the most part, that children promoted to the Junior High School were to have, at least, a fair working efficiency in the three R's, a desire to continue to "learn" and who knew how to maintain satisfactory conduct. Promotions within the Junior High School, in most cases, were to be according to merit. Theoretically, such a set-up had tremendous possibilities—a vast potential force in getting adolescents started on the way to cultural, vocational pursuits and proper enjoyment of leisure.

Yet with all our boastful talk of "new methods," "new techniques,," "new approaches;" with more children attending school than ever before and staying longer, what has been happening to our Junior High Schools this past decade? It takes time and energy to be thoughtful, to be patient, to be considerate and helpful. But the daily program of a Junior High School teacher allows no time for analyzing complicated situations, for applying corrective methods, much less—time for relaxation. A solid, seven period day, one or two days a week is not unusual in many of the schools. Some weeks this is combined with a lunch hour assignment. The teaching load may vary anywhere from seven to ten or twelve classes a week, depending on the number of different subjects taught and the number of periods a class is assigned for a

given subject. Not only has there been a gradual shrikage of properly licensed teachers, but teachers with special training and special licenses, under the new 'integration' program, are expected to teach anything and everything. Clubs, supervised study periods and guidance periods, for the most part, in most of the chools, are nothing but just another burdensome assignment.

Then there is the clerical work—great vigilance and a disproportionate amount of a teacher's time and attention and often also that of a principal's assistant are devoted to tracking down truants—time and attention which might more profitably be devoted to children who are present. It is high time that this law which bases State Aid for education upon mere attendance were revised. Aside from the attendance records and the regular marking periods, there are the end-term records — shop cards, health cards, term sheets and finally the Pupil Personnel Record—a new kind of card, unwieldy in shape, cumbersome, clumsy and calling for a lot of unnecessary information and for duplication of data. In addition, there are the periodic I. Q. tests and the Standard Tests in Reading and Arithmetic, which at best test nothing that subject teachers do not already know, except possibly the ingenuity of those who compile them and the patience and eyesight of those of us who must mark them and then record the results. We seem entirely to overlook the fact that regarding the estimate of a child's personality, behavior, and even ability, there are some things so subjective that they cannot be honestly measured and recorded, no matter what means we use, and those may be the very things which come first in the order of importance in passing judgment and in evaluating the child. These tests may have value and purpose in special cases only, where we are in doubts about a pupil's mental status or scholastic achievements. Certainly, the wholesale use of I. Q. tests and Achievement tests for the purpose of grouping and segregating pupils seems a direct violation of one of our most fundamental principles of democratic training. It singles out a group of children who are made to feel inferior to other children. It fosters a feeling of snobbishness, intolerance, social ostracism, ill feeling. An ancient scholar and keen observer of the ways of men in analyzing how he came by most of his knowledge said, "I learned much from my teachers, more from my books and most from my fellow-students." When all the slow, the restless, the unwilling learners are grouped together what are they going to learn from one another? Moreover, it seems that the less "academically-minded" a student is the more apt is he to learn least from teachers and books and most from his fellow-classmates.

In addition, the Junior High School teacher is also expected to continue the training on the "paste, paint and putter level" of the primary school, to borrow from Professor F. Lund's article, "Are our Schools in step with changing conditions?", in the October 1945 issue of "EDUCATION." "When characteristic concern for the 'rights and interests' of the pupil is extended to the higher grades," says Professor Lund, "it often means the postponment of real training and the transformation of secondary schools into super-kindergartens." Methods,

according to Alexander Meikljohn in his "Education between two world" is always a secondary factor. "Always prior to any 'method'", he says, "is the content out of which it springs, by which it is determined. The extent to which in recent American educational theory and practice, questions of 'content' have been thrust aside for problems of 'method' is one of the clearest measures of our educational futility and confusion of mind."

Finally, next to the vocational schools, the Junior High Schools have the largest number of non-educables or "adjustments" as we call them. Practically every teacher has one such class for at least one period daily and some teachers are compelled to work with such a group for the greater part of the day. Such a group is usually comprised of young people below Junior High School level in reading, writing and arithmetic, "bored with school," and who will not learn or cannot learn either because of innate limitations, maladjustments at home or because somewhere along the course in their primary education, learning difficulties and personality deficiencies have been allowed to accumulate and increase. These young people are not only elusive and indifferent, but like overfull vessels which cannot hold any more, they too seek relief from "pressure" by overflow into deeds and actions which are contrary to established rules and regulations of accepted school conduct. The power of the teacher in the classroom is a mockery. And there doesn't seem to be any really effective way of punishing the wilful and persistent defiance of order and unwillingness to learn. It is small wonder that teachers dread these classes.

TO SUMMARIZE: Here then is the Junior High School teacher with an additional fifteen minutes tacked on to the length of the regular school day, plus a compact, complicated, new-trend, "activating-integrating" program which in most cases requires the teaching of not only related but also unrelated subjects often of different grade levels resulting in diffused attention, diffused effort, and who despite it all must be a composite of instructor, corridor traffic director, case worker, counsellor! Whose job it is to transform and build a higher level of intelligence, break down prejudices, develop competence and self-sufficiency, instil good work habits and wholesome social attitudes in adolescents!

It is said that schools, like apple trees, are known by their fruits. If our Junior High Schools are to continue to function and to be truly and successfully exploratory, if they are to play a wholesome and useful role in helping to develop a child's capacity for the acquisition of information in as many different fields of learning as possible and also help develop certain skills and an awareness of the importance of social and civic obligations, there will have to be a more serious and more conscious and more understanding integration of the aims of the Junior High School and the means for carrying them out.

1. Teachers should be assigned, as far as it is at all possible, to teach the subject for which they are licensed and which they can teach best because of special training, experience and perference.

2. Any subject that is at all worth teaching because of its content or skill value, such as a foreign language or

science or typewriting, should be a five-period subject. Two or three period subjects stretched over several terms are not as effective as a five-period subject for one term. They result in a repeated falling away of attention, in lack of precision, in indifference.

3. No teacher should be required to teach more than five classes a day. "Lunch Hour Duty" should be treated as a regular assignment and provisions made for same accordingly.

4. There should be individual programming for every child and promotions according to subject—certainly in the eighth and ninth years.

5. The supervised study, the guidance and the club periods should be so programmed, so that they are the closing periods of the day for each grade. The first two should be used primarily for those who have difficulty in maintaining satisfactory proficiency and conduct standards and who require individual help and personal attention—"a mind to mind encounter." "Most persons can be built up to a higher level of competence and self-sufficiency," says Dr. Ernest Hooton, anthropologist, "if they are studied individually and properly trained before they are warped and hardened by mistakes in education and bad environment. But we must catch our subjects young." Honor students need not stay for these periods. It is usually the brighter and well-disciplined students who already have many outside interests, such as; music lessons, clubs, etc. and who can use this additional free time to good advantage.

As for the club period—we should keep in mind that the very word "club" implies something voluntary, something one wants to do more than anything else—an activity that is free of formality, coersion, 'discipline.' In the event that a child cannot find a suitable club, he should not be compelled to join *any* club. This period may then be used for extra guidance or supervised study, as the case may be. Moreover, since the 'club meeting' would take place the last period of the day, no doubt, many teachers would be willing to extend the session beyond the regular closing time should the interest of the members and the usefulness of the club warrant it.

6. As regards the final and perhaps the most serious of the problems with which the Junior High School is faced—*what to do with those non-educables who either will not or cannot absorb any more "school"*—certainly, no one with any concern for the future and with a genuine interest in a world-wide democracy would dispute that, "the first postulate of a democracy is equality of education" and that one of the most precious and sacred traditions of our own American democracy has been education—free and open to all who seek it, at least in theory. However, providing equal educational opportunity for all children need not necessarily mean that in a democracy we must educate or pretend to educate every one beyond his intelligence and against his innate ability to absorb. Surely compulsion as an instrument of education, thus far, has not proved to be a very effective weapon, nor is mere physical attendance necessarily learning. It has been like an innoculation that won't take. It is impossible to "put a quart in a pint size soul" and we have not yet produced the chemist who can "transform human brass into gold." "Knowledge is unsuitable," John Comenius

once observed, "when it is uncogenial to the mind of the 'scholar.'"

Where "Social Maturity" vs. Scholastic Achievement, vs. a Sense of Personal and Social Responsibility—no matter how far we extend the period of formal schooling—even if we were to establish CRMD classes in our colleges—expecting the one to catch up with the other, is like expecting the back wheels of a vehicle to catch up with the front wheels. For about a decade we have been simplifying courses of study, lowering requirements and sending ahead boys and girls regardless of their lack of effort and lack of achievement. The "continous progress" idea has led in most cases to nothing but accumulated indifference and a false sense of values and a break-down in discipline. What is more, in many instances, the undue catering to unwilling learners and the undue attention and energy devoted to keeping them in school, is at the expense of alert and willing learners.

"As we teach a young person," to quote Professor Meiklejohn again, "it is not enough to teach him to be 'himself.' We must teach him to be 'himself' in an organized society." The solution, therefore, is not the extension of CRMD classes to the High Schools, nor more vocational and industrial schools, nor even more guidance clinics, but provision for some kind of work-experience program for occupational adjustment by adopting for these Junior High School noneducables an Apprentice program, such as is now current in some of our academic and vocational schools.

Wilful, arrogant defiance of authority should be punishable not by demotion or promotion (which is only the transfer of a difficult problem from one teacher to another without solving it), but by exclusion or expulsion. Education cannot be expected to repair every deficiency in human nature. There are some delinquency problems which must be the concern not only of the schools but also of parents and of the community at large—industry and labor. In view of the fact that the bulk of semi-skilled and unskilled jobs require but a few weeks or a few months of training, exceptions should be made in the case of non-educables and they should not be required to wait until they are 17 or 18. In so many of these cases, the only sensible and workable solution is "working papers."

As for those of our educators and supervisors who fear that the recognition and admission of the existence of "non-educables" and the honest awareness, at last, of our inability to do anything for them,, at least with our present set-up, is an indictment of our educational system. I repeat what I have already said elsewhere (High Points—April 1943)—Do we regard the Medical profession a failure just because, thus far, physicians have found no way of preventing the spreading of malignant cancer? Do we regard medical research a failure because, thus far, nothing has been discovered that would check the progressive deterioration of encephalitics?

IN CONCLUSION: We must cease to confuse the principle of equality of opportunity with equality of ability. In order to make free public education the proudest feature in our American way of life, "the right to education should remain on an equal footing with every other right—no one should expect to get free of charge what others get only by expenditure of

earnest work and real effort." The prolonged period of free schooling should be deemed a vital experience and a great privilege enjoyed by children living in a democracy and not just something imposed by law. Parents too, should take greater pride and responsibility in keeping their children in school and help see to it that their children make good and fully avail themselves of every advantage that goes with an extended free school system.

Of course, children should be the first and major consideration in any school program. However, it must also be remembered that even new techniques do not replace the teacher. Even the atomic bomb, to quote from a N. Y. Times editorial, is mindless; it does not set itself off. It is inert and harmless until its mechanism of disintegration is released by the human will. At present, the mechanical organization as such comes first; children second and teachers are considered last, if at all. It has been observed that "in the position of teacher, no society can afford the second best—unless teachers are critically important, they are nothing."

It is only, therefore, by the elimination of the unnecessary strain and frustration and friction in attempting to do the impossible, that teaching can be expected to be more than a bag of tricks and devices merely for keeping children off the streets and out of the way of their parents. It is only by making it possible for teachers to bring to the task of training worthy, deserving, future citizens their fullest measure of devotion, sincerity, enthusiasm, knowledge and energy, that all children will be accorded the full measure of a genuine, thorough, liberal education worthy of a democracy. And then we shall have less need to worry about Juvenile Delinquency with its need for Child Guidance Bureaus, Mental Hygiene Clinics, Psychologists, Juvenile Courts and agencies and committees for maintaining and promoting racial tolerance and friendly human relations.

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Laboratories *in* Junior High School Grades

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Verona, New Jersey

KNOWING that it is the duty of the school, whether large or small, to be set up as a "laboratory" in which the 'learn to do by doing' that we hear so much about, can take place, an attempt was made to so organize the work of the seventh year at the Roslyn Heights, Long Island, School. This laboratory is of a type that fits into a child's world, in order to facilitate the development necessary, before these children grow up and have to compete in the adult world. This is even more true today than formerly as children are now doing work adults kept for themselves. Now children are entering adulthood responsibilities at an earlier age. All so-called subjects and fields of work, on any level, can be taught by the laboratory method but it is particularly adaptable to the arts, sciences, and industries, as taken up in our Junior High School grades. We all believe in this type of work, including the fact that the material itself must come from areas that are within the pupils' interest and ability, in order that the work be practical and beneficial. Therefore, into these areas will fall subjects and areas of work and interest that are of a practical rather than an abstract nature. It is logical, therefore, that a large portion of our Junior High School work, which should be of the exploratory nature, does consist of Household, Fine, and Industrial Arts.

Laboratories were organized to provide first hand knowledge and experience and to give students a chance to explore in areas that are deemed advisable.

Shops can be organized as follows: first, unit shops which give students very intense work in a small area; second, as general shops that give general training in a great variety of shop experiences; and third, the general unit shops that provide for experiences of a general nature in a large, broad area of work. If we are to have departmentalized work a school that is to be for all of the children of all the people, the work must be of a nature that everyone, regardless of sex, age, mental or physical ability, interests, and aptitudes, can be benefited by. This can be accomplished in the larger school by means of a general unit shop and in the smaller school by means of a general shop. The work in the seventh grades at Roslyn Heights is of the second type, that is, a general shop giving general training in a variety of shop experiences.

The shops, as well as the rest of the laboratories, are organized upon student individual or group interests, and the work so set up that some of it is

within the ability of each and every individual.

An individual standard is set up for each individual. In order to hold students' interest, we offer a variety of work. In our general shop which is in a small school, we included: hand wood work, sheet metal and wrought iron work, electricity, painting and refinishing, planning new work and repairing old, concrete construction, etc. If the school were large enough to have unit shops, we could have the general areas of wood, metal and mechanics. The wood shop then would include hand woodwork, machine woodwork, carpentry, cabinet making, wood finishing and refinishing. The metal area: sheet metal, wrought iron, art metal, jewelry, metal finishing and refinishing. Under mechanics: auto mechanics, electricity, household and general mechanics.

By looking these areas over, you see how practical and worthwhile this work is for girls, either in a separate group or, as is done in our seventh grade, have boys and girls as a mixed group. The kind of work done in the general and mechanics shops include work in relationship to appliances that practically every woman is in contact with today, especially now that they are required to take over jobs formerly done by men.

When we think of kitchens and cooking, we do not consider this work for girls only, but for boys and girls, as all Junior High School work is intended. Rather than having different kinds of kitchens as we might have shops, the problem is better solved by having just a kitchen in the smaller school, and if the school were larger, have a kitchen-dining room combination where one group could be cooking, while the other was serving or working out menus.

In our school with a single kitchen, we take up planning meals, cooking, baking, pre-serving, and serving food. If we had a school large enough for a kitchen-dining room combination, we could enlarge the areas covered to include budgeting, planning meals, nutrition, cooking, baking, preserving, serving food, candy making, and consideration of the food trades.

Everybody must eat food in order to exist and properly carry on their normal duties in life. Therefore, the study of foods is one of the most important subjects in our Junior High School grades. This type of work, no matter whether it is in a departmentalized or non-departmentalized school system, should be on the laboratory basis, allowing each individual to experience and learn for himself the joy and satisfaction of achievement. Although all of our work does not and can not possibly integrate or correlate with the rest of the school's offerings, we see that the study of foods closely fits in with that of the study of our human body and health.

To furnish the best means for children to experiment and explore in these areas, cooking and sewing should be set up in separate laboratories. In our seventh grades, the work taken up under sewing, the study of clothing and weaving is done in the classroom, but in a larger system we might have one laboratory for sewing and the study of clothing and another for weaving. In the general laboratory, such things as patterns, hand sewing, machine sewing, mending, weaving and dyeing might be taken up. In a larger school, however, under clothing, we should include the study of cloth,

patterns, hand sewing, machine sewing, care of clothes, mending and darning. Under weaving, we might consider textiles, weaving itself, knitting, crocheting, the care of fabrics, and dyeing.

As in the case of the shops, some of these activities interest girls more than they would boys and some interest boys more than they do girls, which is a perfectly natural thing. Each group then is allowed to select those that are best suited for their own group. Throughout this part of the program, we try to be sure that new areas of experiences for all members of our group are always being opened.

The sciences, both natural and physical, present a very large, worthwhile and important area to be studied under the laboratory plan. This type of work offers a wonderful opportunity for first hand contact in securing information. In the smaller Junior High Schools, we could probably only afford one fully equipped science room or laboratory, but in a larger school it would be possible to have one for the natural sciences and one for the physical sciences.

Of course in all this work, consideration should be given that each school and group of children is unique in themselves and has to have a program planned to fit the group that it is organized to help. In our case, science has to be taught in the regular room by the classroom teacher, but the equipment and supplies are movable.

This program of natural science provides a first hand opportunity for both boys and girls to study growing plants and animals, phases of the human body, gardening, flowers, vegetables, farm, home and zoo animals. This natural science work occurs in the areas known as zoology and botany. The physical sciences would cover simple physical and chemical phenomana. Some of this work is now included in our general science. Much of this at the present time, however, is approached from textbooks and not from the materials and processes themselves as we would like it to be.

Where, as our school has some of these many activities carried on in one room, the larger high school could furnish facilities for a program in both natural and physical sciences supplemented with a green house and barn for housing plants and animals under observation.

Fine arts in a program of General Education should never be so fine that they exclude children from this important phase of their life development. Work, as carried on under fine arts, adds much to a program of education in that it furnishes children an opportunity to present their ideas in a manner other than verbal. In times of stress such a program will provide recreational activities and emotional outlets. Our program of fine arts does not limit itself to two dimensional work, but includes the three dimensional work known as the craft areas. Free hand sketching, water colors, crayola work, oil painting, etc., furnish much of the two dimensional work, and ceramics, leather work, plastics or basketry provide work in the three dimensional areas.

In planning a practical set up for this school, it was found one studio could well house the complete line of this work, but if a larger building were available, one studio could take care of the two dimensional work and another one the three dimensional

work. It was found exceedingly important not to separate boys and girls in this kind of activity because they work better as a mixed group, which is the normal group in any society. Technical areas such as perspective are not to be taken up as such, but naturally grow out of what different individuals are doing.

Graphic arts in some respects is similar to both Fine and Industrial Arts. In considering this work here, we are thinking of work that furnishes a graphic representation of something. In our set up we would like to furnish opportunity in the larger areas, namely: mechanical drawing, printing, photography, and linoleum block prints. If funds were more adequate, we could set up one studio with the equipment for teaching lithographing, etching, linoleum block printing, book binding, and printing. Then another studio for mechanical drawing and photography. Every person, boy or girl, is given some opportunity during their Junior High School experience to do some work in other areas mentioned, and possibly in the future this area can be added.

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Identical Errors Reveal Deception

By HENRY F. DICKENSON
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Harrogate, Tennessee

A number of years ago a fellow teacher asked for help in solving a deception problem. The fact that no practical technique was immediately available to do what he wanted done, elicited my cooperation in producing the needed technique. Contagious interest since that time, more than anything else, explain why much thought and experimentation have been devoted to this problem. The present paper is a culminating outgrowth of several investigations.

There are two schools of thought regarding the nature of dishonesty. One, of which Hartshorne and May (15) are examples, holds that honesty is not a unit trait, but rather an integral dependent of a specific situation. The other, of which Barbu (4) is an example, holds that honesty is a general function of character, in that it is present in equivalent amounts for several total honesty situations. It seems likely, however, that both views have some element of truth in them, varying from individual to individual and situation to situation.

PREVALENCE OF DISHONESTY IN THE CLASSROOM—The potential if not actual presence of dishonesty in the classroom is always to be reckoned with by teachers. Honesty, like freedom, is dependent upon force in some instances for putting down dishonesty and tyranny.

It has been conceded by most people for a long time that the main aim of the school is the development of worthy character. Since character education is of such ultimate importance, it may be necessary to examine the relationship of dishonesty and character e d u c a t i o n. Crystallized group sentiment for certain disapproved types of conduct is known as dishonesty. Character education, then, consists of acquiring approved knowledge, attitudes, habits, and skills which result in desirable behavior. Any interference with this process of acquisition is therefore anti-social, as it impedes progress in a socially approved direction. The general ineffectiveness of much character education, as shown through the following experimentation, is the result of this inhibitory (deceptive) factor.

From data at hand, forty-two per cent of the students of a typical American classroom, as studied over a period of two years, were found to be dishonest. More men were found to be dishonest than women. Children of professional classes were found to be more honest than children of laboring classes. Older students were found to be more dishonest than younger students taking the same work (23).

Seventy-nine percent of typical junior college students admitted cheating on examinations at some time or other. Eighty-three percent preferred frankness to "white lies" according to questionnaire results (22). Approximately fifty percent of Czechoslovakian

University students were found to be dishonest. The women were more dishonest than the men (24). Implied inhibitory dishonesty was prevalent among the Japanese students (29). Professed attitudinal honesty was found to be more in evidence than actual honesty (7).

High school students of a typical southern community, according to questionnaire attitudes, thought it was not right to give or receive aid. They thought that giving aid was less serious than receiving aid, that the honor system would not work in their own school, and that cheating was quite frequent in their school (27).

Where the honor system was in force, twenty-three percent of sophomores and juniors in a women's college cheated. They were asked to check already checked but unmarked papers. A large percentage of students with low grades cheated. In fact the lower the grades the larger was the percentage of cheating. Non-sorority students cheated less than sorority students (11).

High school chemistry pupils checked their own papers, already recorded by their teachers, in an unreliable manner, while they checked objective examination papers of others in a reliable manner under controlled conditions (18).

The abstract principles of honesty for college students are expected to be higher than actual practice. Yet the failure of large groups of students, through questionnaire appraisal, to express a condemnation of certain specific practices, indicated a low standard of honesty on their part. In the realm of cheating there was a marked change of emphasis in copying from someone else and letting someone else copy from you. Being an accessory to cheating was considered less worthy of condemnation than the direct act of cheating. Only mild disapproval was given to reporting on those who had been observed cheating. Lying and insincerity were very largely related to certain circumstances, the determining factors being harm done to others (26).

The use of a false key and subsequent retest on the same questions showed that about one-third of a group of sociology students changed answers to agree with a false key (21). Ten times as many pupils raised scores on their own papers as raised scores on their neighbors' papers (12). Another quite similar finding by Maller showed that children are more deceptive when scores are to count for personal gain than when they are to count for the group gain (20).

Reformatory inmates cheated more than those of their own age continuing in the public school. The well-adjusted in the regular high school cheated less than those not well-adjusted. Approximately one-third of the regular school pupils were dishonest. Negroes were more dishonest than whites; the sex offenders of the reformatory group were more dishonest than the stealing offenders. And finally, good ability in arithmetic was inversely related to dishonesty (16).

Guidance records are less accurate than supposed, as pupils lie to win approval or in fear that true answers may be held against them. Pupils are lacking in confidence in the teacher and school, which leads to untruthfulness for fear that it will be held against them (14).

CAUSES OF DECEPTION IN THE CLASSROOM—Inhibitory offense-related responses on an associa-

tion test are related to dishonesty. Normal responses are more immediate and natural (29). The stigma of incrimination, with consequent loss of prestige, seems to deter one from making the honest response. The need for cheating increased with the increasing difficulty of the test. Cheating increased with the difficulty of the test, both in number of individuals and amount per individual (19).

There are great institutional variations in standards of honesty. At one institution practically all undergraduate and graduate students thought it was wrong to use another's notebook material as one's own, while almost as many thought it ethically sound to ask a friend to give help on a daily quiz (5). The honesty standards of relatives influenced the amount of cheating, the possibility of detection, and the seriousness of the offense (22).

Ease of cheating, lack of ethical instruction on the testing technique used, fear of failure, and low intelligence were potent causes for the cheating of prospective teachers, according to Atkins (1). Barbu (2) saw deception as a self-protective mechanism. The attempt to sustain the reputation or enhance the ego lead to auto-deception occasionally. Originally lying occurred unconsciously and only later developed into intentions to cheat.. Given the present social organization, lying appeared as a way of satisfying certain needs and tendencies prohibited by society. There seemed to be a certain constitution predisposing to lying. The enviroment of the family, the neighborhood, the class, etc. were found to be factors. From this view lying is as variable as other traits and may become habitual, accompanying pathological degeneracy (3).

Pupils lie to win approval and to avoid the consequence which truth might bring to them (14). Unfavorable rank in scholarship, mental ability, degree of self-support, and the graduating class, predisposed toward dishonesty. Any factor or condition which brought pressure to bear upon the student tended to produce dishonest behavior, if the competition was sufficiently keen (23). Cheating grew out of the competitive system under which college credits are awarded (11).

The method of instruction employed with children may actually militate against the development of worthy character. The philosophy of authoritarianism—in the form of absolute standards of evaluation, of motivation through marks, and of extrinsic rewards for unattainable goals—caused inferior pupils in the traditional schools to resort to deceptive ways of attaining unreasonable goals (15).

Teachers' attitudes bear a definite relationship to cheating. Cheating seemed to decrease most under teachers who were least in favor of blaming and shaming their pupils into more pleasing achievement or conduct. Cheating decreased most also under those teachers who rated the greatest number of common behavior problems as of serious consequences for the future wholesome development of the child; while cheating decreased least under teachers holding up marks as incentives to good work (6).

In his study of boys' gangs, Thrasher gives much evidence to show that standards of the group greatly influenced the moral outlook and behavior of all its members especially the newcomers (28). Without recounting further experiments, which demon-

strate the fact that there are real causes for deceptive behavior in our classrooms, we may now consider what can be done about the situation.

WHAT SHOULD BE DONE ABOUT CLASSROOM DISHONESTY—Someone has said that the high spots of our civilization are those spots where we have conformed more closely to natural laws. If this be true the individual, state, or nation knowing and observing more natural laws is destined to become greater than that one knowing and observing fewer natural laws.

Consider the natural relationship of the parasite to its host. Whether plant or animal, the parasite will continue to draw subsistance from the host as long as it is allowed this convenient relationship. There are two common procedures for destroying this relationship.

The first is concerned with killing the parasite and letting the host live. This, of course, is too drastic for a classroom parasite drawing his substance from a classmate host during the final examination; yet it is very appropriate for chicken mites or tobacco worms.

The second, more recent, procedure for breaking up this relationship consist of administering a repellent which the host can tolerate, but which the parasite cannot endure. This procedure seems the more preferable of two for handling the peeking parasite of the examination period. The repellent proposed for classroom cheating may impose an unpleasant extra duty occasionally, yet the excellent teacher will perform it as a matter of course.

The practice of honesty in the classroom is unjust if dishonesty is permitted. The raising of one score in a group distribution by cheating tends to lower slightly every score below it, as well as influence the position of each one above it according to the relative system of grading. When situations demand the frustration of dishonesty, the real teacher and the conscientious students cannot afford to waver.

A technique called identical errors[1] enables the teacher to determine the collaborators, either givers or receivers of aid on the examination, both of whom, contrary to popular thinking among students, are equally involved in acts of dishonesty.

HOW IDENTICAL ERRORS REVEAL DECEPTION—The identical errors technique consists of making a comparsion between the examination papers of two cheating suspects. The sum of the total errors of each paper is divided into the identical (or like) errors between the two papers. This gives percentage quotients, the larger of which indicates the receiver of aid and the smaller the giver of aid. Table I of a study concerning this technique[1] appears below:

Table I was derived by first determining the actual number of different ways two students may answer different test items. Take a dual-choice item for example, two subjects (1 & 2) may answer in any of the following ways: (T_1 F_2), (T_1 T_2), (F_1 T_2), and (F_1 F_2). Here a two-choice item has four possible response combinations Two of these, (T_1 T_2) and (F_1 F_2), are identical responses. One is the answer to the test item, the other is an identical error for each student.

Take a triple-choice item as a sec-

1 Dickenson, H. F. Identical Errors and Deception Journal of Educational Research 1945, 38, 534-542.

ond example, two student's may answer in any of the following ways: (1_1 1_2), (1_1 2_2), (1_1 3_2), (2_1 2_2), (2_1 1_2), (2_1 3_2), (3_1 3_2), (3_1 1_2), and (3_1 2_2). Here a three-choice item, has nine possible answer combinations. Three of these, (1_1 1_2), (2_1 2_2), and (3_1 3_2) are identical responses. One is the correct answer, the other two, possible identical errors for each student. In a similar manner, a four-choice item has sixteen possible answer combinations. Four identical responses, one of which is the answer, the other three possible identical errors for each student.

Thus it may be observed that two-choice items have $(2)^2$ possible answer combinations. Three-choice items have $(3)^2$ possible answer combinations. Four-choice items have $(4)^2$ possible answer combinations, etc. Also, it may be observed that two-choice items have one less or one possible identical error; three-choice items have one less, or two, possible identical errors; four-choice items have one less, or three, possible identical errors, etc. From these data, the formula was derived as follows: Identical Error Percentage equals the number of item choices less one, divided by the square of the choices, ($IE = C\text{-}1/C^2$).

This formula enables one to determine for each separate item type, the ratio of probably identical errors to possible answer combinations. The percentage mean (Table I) is the average of probably identical errors. It varies according to chance, negatively to zero, (no identical errors) and positively by the same amount, (twice the average). Consequently the column

TABLE I

THEORETICAL IDENTICAL ERRORS AND DECEPTION

No. of choices in Test Item	Possible Pairs of Responses	Possible Pairs of Identical Responses	Probable Pairs of Identical Errors	Percentage of Probable Identical Errors		Deception Range of Identical Errors
				Mean	Range	
2	4	2	1	25%	0-50%	51-100%
3	9	3	2	22	0-44	45-100
4	16	4	3	19	0-38	39-100
5	25	5	4	16	0-32	33-100
6	36	6	5	14	0-28	29-100
7	49	7	6	12	0-24	25-100
8	64	8	7	11	0-22	23-100
9	81	9	8	10	0-20	21-100
10	100	10	9	9	0-18	19-100
15	225	15	14	6	0-12	13-100
20	400	20	19	5	0-10	11-100
25	625	25	24	4	0- 8	9-100
30	900	30	29	3	0- 6	7-100
50	2,500	50	49	2	0- 4	5-100
100	10,000	100	99	1	0- 2	3-100

captioned "Range" represents the universes of probable, or chance, identical errors for fifteen item types, shown in Table I. The column captioned, "Deception Range of Identical Errors," Table I, indicates the percentage areas in which deception will be found. These percentage areas of identical errors cannot be explained away or excused on the ground that they just happened that way. They are out of the realm of chance and must therefore be explained in some other way.

A class cooperated experimentally with the writer recently in a test case, applying this technique. They were asked to deceive clandestinely in any manner they chose. As there was an odd number of students in the classroom, it was suggested that someone might choose to remain out of the collaboration for contrast purposes. After ample time to themselves for planning the collaboration, a multiple choice test was administered orally. In order to prevent a perfect job of cheating, the speed of presentation was purposely increased for a group of items. This group of items offered extra possibilities for differentiation.

The students appeared very much interested in the experiment, yet skeptical about prediction possibilities. The pattern of answers checked correct and incorrect served as a first indication of combinations of collaborators. In many instances the general answer patterns, together with similar scores, was rather conclusive. It should be borne in mind, however, that answers incorrect were not always missed in the same way by both student suspects. Identical errors (like mistakes), in relation to total errors, furnished the conclusive evidence.

The collaborators were apprehended with absolute accuracy, even though a couple collaborated diagonally across the room and a group of three, from front to rear. Contrary to the suggestion that one might remain out of the collaboration, all students collaborated and were detected with absolute accuracy. Furthermore, according to the actual mathematical percentage, each giver was apprehended with 100% accuracy, as well as each receiver.

In order to determine who cheated and who did not, it was necessary to determine the maximum number of probable identical errors which could have occurred according to chance. This was done by using a formula: twice the fraction, the numerator of which is the number of item choices minus one and the denominator of which is the square of the choices. The choices are represented by the letter "C." Twice the mean percentage is taken because it is the mid-point of the range, and the formula becomes: I EM=2 $(C\text{-}1/C^2)$. Four choice-items were used in the experimental test case and gave a maximum of 37. or 38% of items used as chance identical errors. The actual range of identical error percentages for the experimental group was 50% to 98%, all being larger than the chance percentage of 38%. (Table I)

It may be noted from the formula (and its extension to include tests composed of several parts of different item types) that the number of choices per item is the single variable from one test or part to another. The only mention in the literature (8) of percentage of identical errors as a measure of collaboration was to the effect that fifty percent or more indicated

collaboration. Table 1 above shows that even as low as three percent identical errors may indicate cheating or collaboration.

RECOMMENDATIONS: Pupils need better adjustment to a social enviroment that differentiates between kinds of falsehoods. In all cases there should be not only intellectural conviction but also a natural emotional reaction to tell the truth (14). Instruction in the principles of honesty is effective in almost all cases (17).

Cheating can be reduced to zero for college students if there is proper student participation in the organization, the planning of activities, the establishment of a democratic relationship, and the elimination of fear of the final examination (13).

A character training program should be based on a better understanding of the factors underlying various forms of behavior. In the light of these, greater care should be exercised in fitting the educational program to the needs, interests, and abilities of the students (23). The best results in character education have been attained in the newer type schools which stress intrisic awards rather than extrinsic awards (15). The final solution of the cheating problem probably involves the change of student motives as its primary consideration, a result not obtainable without drastic changes in present methods (11).

The identical errors technique may be of great value in discovering various forms of dishonesty in the classroom. Neglected cheating cases tend to demoralize the entire class. The student copied from, more appropriately called the giver of aid, may not always be aware of the copying; nevertheless, he should be informed about the gravity of the situation and allowed to take his fair share of the responsibility for eliminating the practice (9). Arbitrary individual response patterns enable the conscientious student to discharge this duty in a superb manner with a minimum of extra effort on his part (10). The galvanometric (lie detector) technique was eighty-three percent effective for discovering classroom deception (25). The identical errors technique promises to be even more effective than the lie detector and more desirable for detecting classroom dishonesty.

The kind of test items used has a great deal to do with evaluation and judicious deception detection. All students should be brought to understand that deception can be detected to such a fine point that even a small infraction, if coupled with the maximum chance identical errors, is sufficient to convict an offender. No one can tell just when chance identical errors will go against one to the chance limit, thus the safe course is to avoid even the appearance of evil.

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THE 36th ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The 36th annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of English will be held during the Thanksgiving holidays, November 28-30, at Atlantic City, New Jersey, according to the announcement from Dr. Helene W. Hartley of Syracuse University, president of the National Council.

The three-day session will feature outstanding literary figures as well as noted educators from all parts of the country. The convention theme is "English in These Times." The program will consider realistically the place of English instruction in education for these times and will weigh, for all levels of instruction from kindergarten through the university, the means and materials appropriate for the realization of the objectives of the language arts.

Harry A. Domincovich of the Germantown, Pa., Friends School, will present classrooom illustrations and demonstrations to show what is actually being done in schools and colleges in teaching for the fifteen specific outcomes chosen as particularly important in these times. Sectional meetings have been planned dealing with such areas as "One World—One Nation," "Communication through Writing and Speaking," "Improving Communication through Ability to Read," "Language Study," "What Is Reading Fatigue?" "Fostering Individuality" "English in Adult Education," "Discrimination in Drama, Motion Pictures, Radio, and Periodicals." and "Preparing English Teachers for our Times."

Special programs are being planned by the three section chairmen: Dr. Dora V. Smith of the University of Minnesota for the elementary schools, Irvin C. Poley of Philadelphia for the high schools, and Prof. Roy P. Basler of the University of Arkansas for the colleges.

Leon C. Hood
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Assignment: Today

By ARTHUR H. RICE

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WHAT can one write about school public relations that has not already been well stated? What can one say on this subject that won't seem silly five years hence?

Accepting the challenge of the test of time, I venture the thesis that for the next five years it is fundamentally just as important that public education be concerned with saving the democratic form of society, as with the teaching of the traditional curriculum.

Such a point of view does not in any way minimize the importance of our present school system, nor does it deny the great need for greater equalization of educational opportunities for all the children in all the states.

Social conflict and economic maladjustment have been increasing instead of decreasing since V-J Day. It may soon be too late to get back on the road to democracy unless organized, nationwide efforts are made to help workers, voters, and taxpayers rediscover the vital meanings and accept the responsibilities of good citizenship. Men and women must be helped to realize that their freedom, their security, and their happiness depend upon their willingness and their ability to work together for the common good, and not just for the union, or the chamber of the commerce, or the club. It means that situations must be created wherein many people will learn the skills of cooperation. They need to discover for themselves that the common sense of ordinary people can solve many problems, if only permitted to operate.

If these things be true, then much of our time, our money, our planning, our energy, and our enthusiasm as educators must go into a type of mass education for all adults. Those who need "education" probably include our own neighbors, who may be unaware that their attitudes and their actions are determined by prejudice and social ignorance.

When the pioneers and men of vision who settled the Northwest Territory dreamed of the potentialities of democracy, they wrote into the Ordinance of 1787 the words that "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." Let's read *again* that statement. It does not say "education for children only." It does not say "elementary education" or "high school education" or "college education." It says "the means of education."

Perhaps those forefathers understood, much more than we seem to, that education in a democracy is and must be a *continuing* process. Perhaps they foresaw that democracy, as the

rule of the people, would fall prey to some of the vicious conditions that discourage us right now, simply because the education of the people, as potential citizens and voters, was not continued beyond adolescent school days. If we agree that continuous adaptation to social conditions is a requisite of democratic living, it becomes evident that the state must provide appropriate education not only for childhood but throughout the life of the individual.

Here, then, is a different emphasis upon public education. Adult education becomes not only an incidental activity of the school, not merely a social experiment, but rather a mandate from the state.

But, you say, it's too big a task for public schools alone, or for the one million members of the teaching profession. You protest that it's an impossible task for schools because financial support is inadequate even for the formalized education of youth.

Granted that schools cannot do it alone,—granted that such a program is far beyond the present financial structure of public education—it still remains a responsibility upon public education and the profession to assume leadership. As teachers, it becomes our task and our calling to preach to all people that the goal for which public education was established, namely, the preservation and improvement of democracy, will soon be a mockery, unless as a state and as a nation we have the courage and foresight to rethink, reorganize, and refinance our whole program of public education toward the end that all who are privileged to live and to vote in this country also have the skills and understanding that are necessary for successful living in a democracy.

There is hope—hope that the bitter fruits of our present incompetencies—may persuade the leaders of many vested interests to forsake their selfish ways and permit the will of an educated people to function. There is hope, but not much evidence!

However, there are a few bright specks on the horizon. Especially encouraging are the large number of new publications providing practical help in techniques of cooperation. Noteworthy is the nationwide program of the Farm Bureau in teaching its members cooperative thinking. Significant is the experiment of the State of Michigan where assistance is given both city and county governments for adult education and visiting teacher programs. Similar programs and legislation are germinating in many places. Is it too little too late? We'll know by 1950.

Educator's Idealism *vs.* Veteran's Realism

By LT. (j. g.) IVAN GUSTAFSON, U. S. N. R.
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RECENT articles written on the post-war education of veterans seem to dwell mostly on the somewhat abstract theory of "education for education's sake." Modern idealists seem to be expressing their conception of what the service man should think, rather than what he is actually thinking. From the shores of Okinawa to the streets of San Francisco, I have talked to both enlisted men and officers as to their future educational plans and very few have expressed the dreams of most educators.

Much emphasis is being placed on the education of the veteran in the causes of war; why he risked death for his country; how to prevent future wars; and a variety of subjects grouped under the heading of "how to more fully appreciate life." Naturally we all realize the importance of such courses, and undoubtedly more emphasis should be placed on them in our future education plans. However, the average veteran is basically not half as interested in the idealistic conception of "how to more fully enjoy life and maintain a world of peace" as he is in the shocking reality of "how am I going to make a comfortable living after leaving the service." His first interest when he dons civilian clothes is in his own individual economic security.

Let us consider specifically the service man who has not completed his high school education. This returning student is going to be our greatest educational problem. He may not intend to go to college, but realizes that a secondary educational background is almost essential in the world of today and even more essential in the world of tomorrow. Whereas the veteran returning to college may have the time and the desire to supplement his professional curriculum with courses on economics of war and the social aspects of life, the veteran returning to high school is going to be much more interested in professional education. He is going to demand a foundation for earning a living. This foundation must be provided for him during the time it takes for him to graduate under the existing system of credits, for time itself is an important factor.

The ex-serviceman does not anticipate going back to the same curriculum that he left. Consequently, I believe, the returning high school veteran is going to expect from his high school first, an occupational foundation; second, practical English work; third, courses on the social aspect of life; and fourth, an introduction to world economics.

Let us consider each of these general topics individually.

Occupational foundation: Naturally the high school cannot be expected to turn out men completely qualified as mechanics, farmers, carpenters, metalists, stenographers or businessmen. However, the high school can and should give the basic knowledge for success in these and other similar fields. Many schools are now offering with much success rather extensive courses in mechanical and industrial arts. These should be supplemented with courses in other professional fields. What is more, the curriculum should be planned so that the veteran can get this foundation in one or two years, as two years will be the maximum time needed for graduation by the average returning student.

Practical English: Perhaps this could be grouped under business foundation in the first category. However, practical English applies to all occupations, and a few years in the service has made this much more apparent to the veteran. He now realizes the full value of being able to write a correct business letter, or of addressing a gathering in correct English. He also has become aware of the importance of being able to adequately express one's ideas without fear of misinterpretation. Classical literature, although important for general high school students, is not going to be appreciated by the returning soldier or sailor. He wants English directly applicable to his future occupational and social life.

Social aspect of life: Although a young service man will readily admit this general group of studies is important to the over-all welfare of society, he himself is only secondarily interested in them. Practical courses in sociology and related subjects should be made available to the high school war veteran so that he may work such classes into his program if he so desires. Here again, we must remember that the student must be able to see the connection between these courses and his future life before he will even tolerate them.

World Economics: This, I believe, can be rated on the same level as "social aspects of life." Both of these are definitely less important to the veteran than the first two classes of study. Again let me emphasize that any economic courses must be practical and directly applicable to the individual's place in the world.

One could elaborate on the above classes indefinitely. However, the purpose of this article is to point out where the emphasis should be placed in our education for veterans. We must remember that we sent boys to war and men are returning. *They are not high school students, but men returning to high school.* It is the place and duty of our high school educators to give these men the types of education they are going to demand, and which they have found out the world is going to demand of them to find occupational security.

Costa Rican Education *and the* National Culture

By JOHN and MAVIS BIESANZ
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BECAUSE education reflects the life of a country, its problems and ideals, a study of the schools of Latin America is invaluable to true understanding between the Americas. Consciousness of this fact has been demonstrated by numerous exchanges of teachers and students and by such programs of coordination as that initiated by the Central American educational conference in 1942.

Costa Rica furnishes especially fertile ground for the study of education as a key to the national culture. A homogeneous nation of 700,000 people, predominantly white and Spanish-speaking, it has long had a nationalist spirit and great pride in its democratic institutions and peaceful traditions. Like other Latin American countries, it has a centralized educational system, whose progress is hampered by poverty and traditionalism. Its economy, too, is almost entirely agricultural, and much of its income is derived from such exports as coffee and bananas. It boasts, however, an unusually low illiteracy rate, 23% for "all ages" or 32% for those over nine years of age. Its teachers enjoy a comparatively high status. The Costa Rican never fails to tell a foreigner proudly that his country has "more teachers than soldiers."

Outstanding in Costa Rica's historical background before independence was the combination of tight Spanish control and indifference to the interests of the colony. The Indians almost died out; schooling was neglected; the colonists lived in poverty and isolation. After independence came in 1821, Costa Rica enjoyed comparative political stability and a degree of democracy especially rare in Latin America during the early decades of republican life. Emerging from poverty by virtue of the cultivation of coffee, the nation developed the highest standard of living in Central America. War with the army of the free-lancing soldier of fortune, William Walker, in 1856, kindled patriotic fervor which gave the people the unity they had lacked. Presidents thereafter took a constructive interest in education, importing professors from Europe and initiating legislation such as the "Organic Law" of Education passed in 1886. Providing for free, compulsory, and laical education for both sexes—an ideal still not reached because of poverty—it paved the way for much of the progress since made. In the fifty-odd years since then, illiteracy has dropped from 70% to 23%.

Extreme centralization characterizes the educational system. The secretary of Public Education, a cabinet member and a presidential appointee, has charge of the hiring and firing of

teachers and the shaping of educational policies. A corps of inspectors and visitors supervises schoolwork and sees that teachers follow the prescribed content and method.

This centralization makes the school system vulnerable to what many regard as the worst evil of Costa Rican education—the influence of politics. A heavy turnover in responsible educational positions results. The post of Secretary of Public Education is a political one, as is that of "Technical Chief;" therefore educational policy constantly changes and lacks integration and consistency. The Normal School has had eleven different directors since its establishment in 1915; other schools have suffered equally from changes in direction.

Even the poorest-paid teachers in the tiniest country school is affected by politics. Every month, until the account is liquidated, a percentage of her salary is deducted from her check to pay for the campaign expenses of the winning presidential candidate. This plan is extremely unpopular among teachers. Although few teachers in lower positions lose their jobs because of politics, those who take an active part in the campaign of the losing candidate are sometimes transferred to less desirable posts or fired. In some cases teachers are expected to campaign for the candidate favored by the president.

Although Costa Rica is not quite so poor as many other Latin-American countries, poverty puts many obstacles in the way of education. A large percentage of the national budget—well over one-sixth in some years—goes for education. Yet in 1941 this amounted to only $22 for each student in the grades, high school, and university, or $2.32 per capita for the entire population. Teachers are underpaid; they have had no salary raise in twenty years,[1] though the cost of living has increased enormously.

The poverty of the masses, especially agricultural workers, keeps many from attending school for more than a year or two, even though the law provides that all children should attend school between the ages of six and fourteen or until they have completed the local school. To a father who earns about $12 a month in the coffee groves, even a ten-year-old's labor is a contribution. Thus it happens that of every ten children entering the first grade, only one reaches the sixth and final grade. When students leave school early, of course, their lack of education helps keep them poor. This vicious circle is a fundamental problem of Costa Rican education.

Despondent as teachers and observers are when they think of the grinding poverty which prevents the average youngster from reaching the third grade, they find that even with those in school poverty is the chief problem. Many cannot afford uniforms and books; some are so malnourished that they cannot take physical education classes nor march in the processions of school children which, in peaceful Costa Rica, take the place of military parades on national holidays. Preventive and educational measures can merely touch the surface as long as the masses of people are only half-fed and clothed and have no security in illness and widowhood—a situation being somewhat relieved by the slow inauguration of a social security plan.

1 They have recently been voted a salary raise for 1944.

Thus the problem of improving education is intimately tied up with that of raising the level of living.

"The Schoolma'am" And Her Work

Four out of five grade teachers are women, for the salary—beginning at $16 a month—will not support a middle-class man with a family. The schoolma'am typically lives at home, makes her own clothes. Though she will never earn a large salary, she is fairly well satisfied with her work and status. She often begins with the first grade and accompanies her pupils through to the sixth grade, teaching them all but "special" subjects, such as music and religion; then she begins all over again with another first grade class. She is paid on an equal basis with men, while her sister in the office or field gets much less. She may continue teaching if she marries, and is entitled to two months' leave before the birth of each child and two months afterwards. She has more freedom than teachers in many small communities in the States; her outside activities are not scrutinized much more closely than are those of other members of the community. Her hours are short—she works from eighteen to twenty periods a week, and periods are only 35 minutes long. She has by law a maximum of thirty pupils in her charge.

She has, however, little opportunity for initiative and experiment in the classroom. The content and method of her teaching are outlined in detail by the *Jefe Técnico,* and a corps of visitors and inspectors sees that she follows the prescribed program. Since the *Jefe* changes every four years and each new appointee initiates a new program with little consideration for the former one, there is little consistency. At present the plan is an adaptation of that of Decroly, a Belgian educator whose four "centers of interest" have been narrowed to two: "I nourish myself," and "I cover myself." As teachers must relate all their subject matter to these two topics, few think they have sufficient liberty in teaching methods.

Discipline in most schools appears to be very mild. The law prohibits physical punishment and few of the prospective teachers of the Normal School believe it is a good thing.

Students find few maps, globes, or reference books in the schools to stimulate their imagination. Texts are lacking in all stages of Costa Rican education; the children are unable to buy expensive books, and cheap editions are few. In recent years great advances have, however, been made in grade-school texts; profusely illustrated books applying modern discoveries in such matters as size of print, manner of presentation, and content have appeared. One children's author declares that Costa Rica's schools are ahead even of Mexico's in this respect. A School Aid Committee in each community collects funds to help provide texts for the poorest children.

With nothing more to go by than the list of subjects studied, a visitor could not tell which grade he was observing. Every grade studies the same subjects and for the same amount of time; except for being more difficult the sixth grade is like the first. This system might be called teaching in "concentric circles." In geography, for example, the first grade studies the district, the second studies the province, the third, Costa Rica. Only the 26% of the students who get to the fourth grade study Central America, while the few reaching the fifth and sixth grades study the Western

and Eastern Hemispheres. Many teachers think the curriculum should be better adapted to difference ages.

Schools are divided into three categories. Slightly over half of the students attend first order schools, which are those with six grades, and more than an eighth go to second order schools, which have four gardes. Five-sevenths of all schools are in the third category, having only two or three grades, but their enrollment is only 34.5% of the total. Third order schools—usually in the country—have no special teachers. They drop all the special subjects except religion—music, manual training, physical education, drawing, sewing, and cooking—and even cut down the time given to the regular subjects—reading and writing, arithmetic, nature study, geography and history, agriculture and industrial education. Except for this classification, there is no basic difference between the programs of urban and rural schools; this fact is one of the chief criticisms of the elementary schools that many offer. The lack of opportunity for experiment has helped keep the schools rooted in the traditional academic soil, without enough of the vocational education so sorely needed.

One feature of the schools heartily disliked by students is the plan of promotion or failure. From grade school through college, failure in a single subject which is not redeemed in a make-up examination means the loss of an entire year and the necessity of repeating all subjects, even those in which one excels.

High School and College

Few Costa Ricans go to high school. For every twenty-five now in grade schools, there is only one in high school. The youngster's parents must pay tuition, buy books and uniforms, and —unless they live in one of the few towns where a high school is located—have the child commute or live away from home. Almost one-third of the students have scholarships, however, while many also receive a stipend for room and board.

The five public high schools include separate ones for the boys and girls in San José, coeducational ones in Alajuela, Cartago and Heredia. One private high school offering night classes has a fairly large enrollment. Several commercial schools exist; many who have gone no further than the sixth grade attend them, as do many high school graduates.

Both the public and the several small Catholic high schools offer a five-year course with the degree of *Bachiller en Humanidades* (Bachelor of Humanities). Each year a student takes from fourteen to seventeen subjects. For five years he studies agriculture (if a boy), Spanish, physical education, physics, history, mathematics, music, geography and chemistry. For four years he studies English, for three French; he chooses one to continue in his fifth year. Three years are devoted to typing, to sewing and cooking for girls, and to manual training or drawing for boys. Literature, cosmography, botany, zoology, biology, inferalogy and geology, and anthropology are given a year each.

Ever since the high schools were established there has been a tendency to add new subjects but not to retire some of the less useful ones. A heavy program lacking integration and flexibility is the result. There is no adaptation to the students' vocational desires. Every student must take every course offered; there is absolutely no possibility of choice. If he fails one

of the long list and cannot pass either of the two make-up examinations he loses the entire year and must repeat even the subjects in which he excels. At the end of the five year period he takes a comprehensive oral and written examination which is spread out over several days. This ordeal is extremely unpopular with students, but it does stimulate them to study and review their work.

Textbooks are almost entirely lacking. Only two of the first year courses at the girls' high school, for example, have texts. Teachers lecture or write information on the blackboard. Students scribble hurriedly in their notebooks, and most of their study at home consists of careful rewriting of their notes. Teachers are handicapped by a woeful lack of study materials; in the Escuela Normal, for instance, the only map of the world is one printed fifty years ago in Germany. Present teaching methods, as a result, greatly overwork the memory; one hears students repeating the lesson to learn it word for word.

The monotony inevitably produced by the use of the lecture method in high school results in lack of attention and discipline in many classes. Students who know they can copy someone else's notes after class whisper, knit, read, or study other lessons.

For every thousand in primary schools only eleven are in the University of Costa Rica, the only college training offered in the country. About one-fourth of the University's enrollment is in its oldest branch, the two-year Normal School. The Law School is almost as popular. Established in 1940, the University embraces several colleges that have functioned for years; the Normal School, Law, Pharmacy, Agriculture, Engineering. New departments established are Dentistry, Economics and Social Science, Modern Languages, Fine Arts, Letters and Philosophy, and Science. Buildings are scattered; the only apparent unity is in the administration. The Secretary of Education is president and a Rector is the administrative head.

Within the various colleges, the plan of studies is as inflexible as in the high school. Most students think there should be some choice of subjects in both high school and university. In the Normal School almost all the subjects are about methods of teaching; there is little concern for a general cultural background for the teacher.

While the University program appears ambitious, there are less than a thousand students in all the departments, money is limited, and the teachers—often through no fault of their own—are not always authorities in the subjects which they are invited to teach. Wealthy men have never subsidized schools or laboratories, and the state rarely devotes money to research. Most students prefer to study abroad, but only a minority can afford the expense involved.

Costa Rica's high school and university students are a highly selected group in terms of ability and opportunity. The system does not, however, encourage full use of their abilities. The inflexible curriculum allows no freedom of choice. Lack of texts and of adequate library facilities limits the possibilities of study. There is little cultivation of the spirit of investigation; graduation theses lack footnotes and bibliography, while the writers' attitudes are not distinguished from ideas gleaned from books. In the Normal School, at least, students are rarely failed, and sanctions for

failure to do the work are light. Many educators say the average Costa Rican student is lazy and cares little for learning; girls are especially afraid that erudition will spoil femininity. Most students have a ready opinion on almost everything but do not like to think or reflect.

"Campus life" is lacking since the university buildings are scattered and there are no dormitories. Out of town students usually live, several in a room, in nearby rooming houses. Clubs are few, and there are no social fraternities. Students go home when classes are over. The plan of grouping students into sections which are the same all day and all year, however, gives each group a feeling of solidarily. Students band against their teachers to gain a holiday or postpone an examination. At the drop of a suggestion they plan excursions, dances, or afternoon "coffees" with reciting and singing; but rarely do they form clubs with serious ends. The school day is broken up with this or that committee meeting to plan a party; the already numerous holidays are swelled by "days off."

Relations of students and teachers are very friendly and informal. Excursions, picnics and parties find them mixing on the friendliest basis imaginable.

Students, like all other Costa Ricans, are very interested in politics. They have considerable freedom of political action, and are prominent in all demonstrations for or against government measures. To many of them, parading in the street is just a lark, but many also appear truly concerned for the democratic traditions which they are taught to revere.

The teachers and professors in all stages of Costa Rican education appear intelligent, interested in their students, and anxious to know what is going on in educational fields. They are often community leaders; many national leaders began as teachers. Hard workers and sincere, they are, nonetheless, greatly handicapped. Books that would help them keep up with latest developments in their fields are expensive, difficult to obtain, and frequently in a foreign language. The poverty of the country keeps libraries incomplete. Texts and teaching materials are scarce and old. The high school or college teacher must frequently write out all his lectures, which are sometimes mimeographed and sold as texts to his students.

Because they are paid by the hour, many professors in high school and the University assume a too-heavy teaching load. This is particularly strenuous for those who divide their time between two schools, often in different towns.

Conclusion

Costa Ricans credit their schools with contributing to many features of their national life on which they most pride themselves. The democracy and stability of their government are said to stem from widespread education and relatively low illiteracy. Class distinctions are elastic; schooling helps one ascend the social ladder, and "cultured" persons are greatly admired.

Comparatively much has been done with the education of the young along academic lines. The greatest gap is in vocational and adult education.

Handicaps to progress are political influence, poverty, centralized control that robs teachers of initiative, and the strong hold of tradition.

EDITORIAL

A Post-War Objective

By CARL G. MILLER

THIS is the school year when educational institutions really begin to repair damages in human character brought on by the Second World War. Last year was a bit too soon to start, too few ex-service men being enrolled, but this year, with armies of such persons and other armies of young people detrimentally affected by an era of war all matriculated and apparently realizing the value of an education, educators can really begin. It is too bad that the problem of housing may have a tendency to occupy teachers' and administrators' minds since, as a matter of fact, the needs of young people today pertain to their minds and souls even more than they do their bodies.

Certainly one thing to be considered is the use of the native tongue, and herein the principal division to receive emphasis is vocabulary. The whole thing needs enlarging and purifying. Too many young Americans—and plenty of old ones—can scarcely talk today without swearing. The word *damn* and the synonym for *Hades* are two of the most over-worked words in the language today. From the standpoint of reasonableness the similes built on the word *hell* are even ridiculous since, according to many young Americans, one can be hotter than hell or colder than hell. Thus, since hell, according to the old myth, is the name for a hot place, the use of it to betoken cold shows that speaking and thinking are not working together. The tendency to use various names for the Almighty as apostrophes or as combinations with *damn* is so great that even an atheist with good taste would be offended, the thing is so overdone. And this is saying nothing about scores of other vile "cuss words."

Educators dealing with war veterans, who have been taught to associate killing with strong language, have to be cautious in their efforts to improve the ex-soldiers' language. Most young men believe that a man is not a man unless he can use strong language, at least on occasion. It is doubtful if this idea can be uprooted. Efforts to improve the language habits of veterans and other young people—even the cigarette smoking coeds—will have to employ toleration, sympathy, and a sense of humor. Much can be made, perhaps, of the old witticism that swearing is the unnecessary use of profanity. Maybe this could be a preliminary working principle. Teachers can admit that there are times when extreme emotion should be released in profanity, but such times for reasonable men should be kept to a minimum. The constant use of profane language can be considered swearing, which is not the habit of a gentleman.

By example, teachers will have to show that the English language contains a large number of effective words that say the thing better than *damning* and *helling*. In other words, they will have the problem of increasing the size and improving the quality of young persons' vocabularies and making them appreciate the values of taste and discrimination.

It is true that no one with common sense can hope to accomplish much in a short time in improving the language of young Americans, but it is well to note the problem now and work gradually in that direction. And in this English teachers need the help of the rest of the faculty.

BOOK REVIEW

On The Edge Of Evening By Cornelius Weygandt. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y.

Instead of the "Midas touch" where things were turned to gold, the "human touch" of Weygandt vitalizes and gives meaning to everyday experiences. Full of warm human sympathy, the distilled essence of lifetime of English teaching—no, of human living—our author sheds a kindly glow upon all things.

Cornelius Weygandt, like his great colleague, the economist and humanist, Simon Nelson Patten, has left his imprint on the University of Pennsylvania and the hundreds of young people who were so fortunate as to have sat at his feet within the past forty odd years. His many books radiate his influence far beyond the college walls.

This autobiography is not "literary" so much as it is homely and kindly. It smells of the good earth. It talks with us and not at us. The author speaks of celebrities such as William B. Yeats, whom he brought from Ireland and first introduced to America, John Masefield, Vachel Lindsey, and others in one breath, and his Dorkings (mentioned by Chaucer), Orpingtons and Hampshire Red hens in the next.

Weygandt expresses his debt to Wordsworth and shows how that poet helped shape the trend of his thinking and tastes. Some of you who are older will think of William Lyon Phelps, of Dr. Frank Crane's Adventures in Common Sense, or of Grayson's Adventures in Contentment when you read any of Weygandt's many books. Though not imitative, Weygandt's manner suggests Somerset Maugham. He, ,too makes the commonplace epic or at least noteworthy. It is the simple things that are great to such souls. Every day's living is an experience; every person encountered is a revelation.

There are many quotable passages in this volume, but a hint of the author's mind is flashed to us by this gem: "There is not yet in the world a sufficient appreciation of the real teacher. There is no need for any man to be more than a teacher, one who has the privilege of opening up the wonders of a subject to an awakening mind. After all, men and women taken as a whole are never better than in their school and college years. Some go on growing all life through, but too many are got the better of by the world." Weygandt has made a valiant fight to save their souls.

Weygandt's theory or rather practice of writing is given here: "I dimly sensed by the mid-nineties that what one should do was to find a little world of his own undiscovered before he came upon it, and write about that." Further: "a great deal of the best writing is what is overheard. My walking about the country and going to country auctions had brought me into contact with all sorts and conditions of men from crowders and charcoal burners to drovers and ministers, from "pineys" in New Jersey to "potentates goodly of girth" in San Diego, from Portuguese on Cape Cod to Pennsylvania Dutchmen on Plum Creek, from New Hampshire farmers to Philadelphia lawyers." (Save the mark!—my own interpolation). "It was in Clementon in New Jersey the proprietor of charcoal pits said to me of one of his workmen: "He wouldn't farm for a farm."

This modern Chaucer gathers the sheaves of a rich and full life of inspiration to himself and to others. But I cannot conceive of him as going into the twighlight. Rather I feel assured that he is on the eve of a morning to follow which will be even a richer and more productive period. He is old in experience but young in spirit and vigor—HENRY FLURY, Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.